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Preface

Biology is designed for multi-semester biology courses for science majors. It is grounded on an evolutionary basis and includes exciting features that highlight careers in the biological sciences and everyday applications of the concepts at hand. To meet the needs of today's instructors and students, some content has been strategically condensed while maintaining the overall scope and coverage of traditional texts for this course. Instructors can customize the book, adapting it to the approach that works best in their classroom. Biology also includes an innovative art program that incorporates critical thinking and clicker questions to help students understand—and apply—key concepts.

Welcome to *Biology*, an OpenStax resource. This textbook was written to increase student access to high-quality learning materials, maintaining highest standards of academic rigor at little to no cost.

About OpenStax

OpenStax is a nonprofit based at Rice University, and it's our mission to improve student access to education. Our first openly licensed college textbook was published in 2012, and our library has since scaled to over 20 books for college and AP courses used by hundreds of thousands of students. Our adaptive learning technology, designed to improve learning outcomes through personalized educational paths, is being piloted in college courses throughout the country. Through our partnerships with philanthropic foundations and our alliance with other educational resource organizations, OpenStax is breaking down the most common barriers to learning and empowering students and instructors to succeed.

About OpenStax's Resources

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All OpenStax textbooks undergo a rigorous review process. However, like any professional-grade textbook, errors sometimes occur. Since our books are web based, we can make updates periodically when deemed pedagogically necessary. If you have a correction to suggest, submit it through the link on your book page on openstax.org. Subject matter experts review all errata suggestions. OpenStax is committed to remaining transparent about all updates, so you will also find a list of past errata changes on your book page on openstax.org.

Format

You can access this textbook for free in web view or PDF through openstax.org, and in low-cost print and iBooks editions.

About Biology

Biology is designed to cover the scope and sequence requirements of a typical two-semester biology course for science majors. The text provides comprehensive coverage of foundational research and core biology concepts through an evolutionary lens. *Biology* includes rich features that engage students in scientific inquiry, highlight careers in the biological sciences, and offer everyday applications. The book also includes clicker questions to help students understand—and apply—key concepts.

Coverage and Scope

In developing *Biology*, we listened to hundreds of General Biology instructors who readily provided feedback about their courses, students, challenges, and hopes for innovation. The expense of textbooks and related items did prove to be a barrier to learning. But more importantly, these teachers suggested improvements for the textbook, which would ultimately lead to more meaningful and memorable learning experiences for students.

The result is a book that addresses a core organizational reality of the course and its materials—the sheer breadth of the topical coverage. We provide a thorough treatment of biology’s foundational concepts while condensing selected topics in response to the market’s request for a textbook with a scope that is manageable for instructors and students alike. We also strive to make biology, as a discipline, interesting and accessible to students. In addition to a comprehensive coverage of core concepts and foundational research, we have incorporated features that draw learners into the discipline in meaningful ways.

The pedagogical choices, chapter arrangements, and learning objective fulfillment were developed and vetted with the feedback of another one hundred reviewers, who thoroughly read the material and offered detailed critical commentary.

Unit 1: The Chemistry of Life. Our opening unit introduces students to the sciences, including the scientific method and the fundamental concepts of chemistry and physics that provide a framework within which learners comprehend biological processes.

Unit 2: The Cell. Students will gain solid understanding of the structures, functions, and processes of the most basic unit of life: the cell.

Unit 3: Genetics. Our comprehensive genetics unit takes learners from the earliest experiments that revealed the basis of genetics through the intricacies of DNA to current applications in the emerging studies of biotechnology and genomics.

Unit 4: Evolutionary Processes. The core concepts of evolution are discussed in this unit with examples illustrating evolutionary processes. Additionally, the evolutionary basis of biology reappears throughout the textbook in general discussion and is reinforced through special call-out features highlighting specific evolution-based topics.

Unit 5: Biological Diversity. The diversity of life is explored with detailed study of various organisms and discussion of emerging phylogenetic relationships. This unit moves from viruses to living organisms like bacteria, discusses the organisms formerly grouped as protists, and devotes multiple chapters to plant and animal life.

Unit 6: Plant Structure and Function. Our plant unit thoroughly covers the fundamental knowledge of plant life essential to an introductory biology course.

Unit 7: Animal Structure and Function. An introduction to the form and function of the animal body is followed by chapters on specific body systems and processes. This unit touches on the biology of all organisms while maintaining an engaging focus on human anatomy and physiology that helps students connect to the topics.

Unit 8: Ecology. Ecological concepts are broadly covered in this unit, with features highlighting localized, real-world issues of conservation and biodiversity.

Pedagogical Foundation and Features

Biology is grounded in a solid scientific base, with features that engage the students in scientific inquiry, including:

Evolution Connection features uphold the importance of evolution to all biological study through discussions like “The Evolution of Metabolic Pathways” and “Algae and Evolutionary Paths to Photosynthesis.”

Scientific Method Connection call-outs walk students through actual or thought experiments that elucidate the steps of the scientific process as applied to the topic. Features include “Determining the Time Spent in Cell Cycle Stages” and “Testing the Hypothesis of Independent Assortment.”

Career Connection features present information on a variety of careers in the biological sciences, introducing students to the educational requirements and day-to-day work life of a variety of professions, such as microbiologist, ecologist, neurologist, and forensic scientist.

Everyday Connection features tie biological concepts to emerging issues and discuss science in terms of everyday life. Topics include “Chesapeake Bay” and “Can Snail Venom Be Used as a Pharmacological Pain Killer?”

Art and Animations That Engage

Our art program takes a straightforward approach designed to help students learn the concepts of biology through simple, effective illustrations, photos, and micrographs. *Biology* also incorporates links to relevant animations and interactive exercises that help bring biology to life for students.

Art Connection features call out core figures in each chapter for student study. Questions about key figures, including clicker questions that can be used in the classroom, engage students’ critical thinking to ensure genuine understanding.

Link to Learning features direct students to online interactive exercises and animations to add a fuller context to core content.

Additional Resources

Student and Instructor Resources

We've compiled additional resources for both students and instructors, including Getting Started Guides, an instructor solution manual, supplemental test items, and PowerPoint slides. Instructor resources require a verified instructor account, which can be requested on your openstax.org log-in. Take advantage of these resources to supplement your OpenStax book.

Partner Resources

OpenStax Partners are our allies in the mission to make high-quality learning materials affordable and accessible to students and instructors everywhere. Their tools integrate seamlessly with our OpenStax titles at a low cost. To access the partner resources for your text, visit your book page on openstax.org.

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Introduction

This NASA image is a composite of several satellite-based views of Earth. To make the whole-Earth image, NASA scientists combine observations of different parts of the planet. (credit: NASA/GSFC/NOAA/USGS)

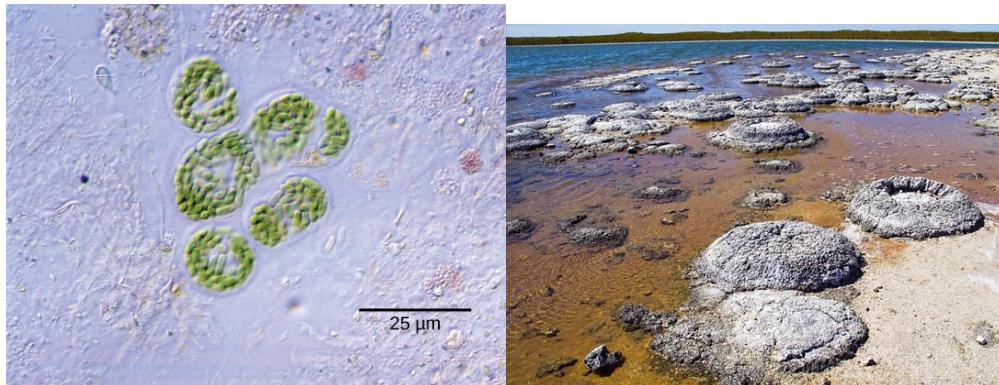


Viewed from space, Earth offers no clues about the diversity of life forms that reside there. The first forms of life on Earth are thought to have been microorganisms that existed for billions of years in the ocean before plants and animals appeared. The mammals, birds, and flowers so familiar to us are all relatively recent, originating 130 to 200 million years ago. Humans have inhabited this planet for only the last 2.5 million years, and only in the last 200,000 years have humans started looking like we do today.

The Science of Biology

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify the shared characteristics of the natural sciences
- Summarize the steps of the scientific method
- Compare inductive reasoning with deductive reasoning
- Describe the goals of basic science and applied science

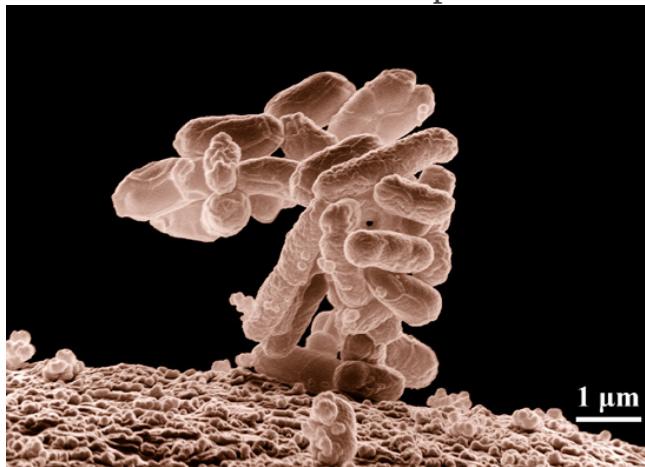


Formerly called blue-green algae, these (a) cyanobacteria, shown here at 300x magnification under a light microscope, are some of Earth's oldest life forms.

These (b) stromatolites along the shores of Lake Thetis in Western Australia are ancient structures formed by the layering of cyanobacteria in shallow waters. (credit a: modification of work by NASA; credit b: modification of work by Ruth Ellison; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

What is biology? In simple terms, **biology** is the study of living organisms and their interactions with one another and their environments. This is a very broad definition because the scope of biology is vast. Biologists may study anything from the microscopic or submicroscopic view of a cell to ecosystems and the whole living planet ([\[link\]](#)). Listening to the daily news, you will quickly realize how many aspects of biology are discussed every day. For example, recent news topics include *Escherichia coli* ([\[link\]](#)) outbreaks in spinach and *Salmonella* contamination in peanut butter. Other subjects include efforts toward finding a cure for AIDS, Alzheimer's

disease, and cancer. On a global scale, many researchers are committed to finding ways to protect the planet, solve environmental issues, and reduce the effects of climate change. All of these diverse endeavors are related to different facets of the discipline of biology.



Escherichia coli (*E. coli*) bacteria, seen in this scanning electron micrograph, are normal residents of our digestive tracts that aid in the absorption of vitamin K and other nutrients. However, virulent strains are sometimes responsible for disease outbreaks. (credit: Eric Erbe, digital colorization by Christopher Pooley, both of USDA, ARS, EMU)

The Process of Science

Biology is a science, but what exactly is science? What does the study of biology share with other scientific disciplines? **Science** (from the Latin *scientia*, meaning “knowledge”) can be defined as knowledge that covers general truths or the operation of general laws, especially when acquired and tested by the scientific method. It becomes clear from this definition

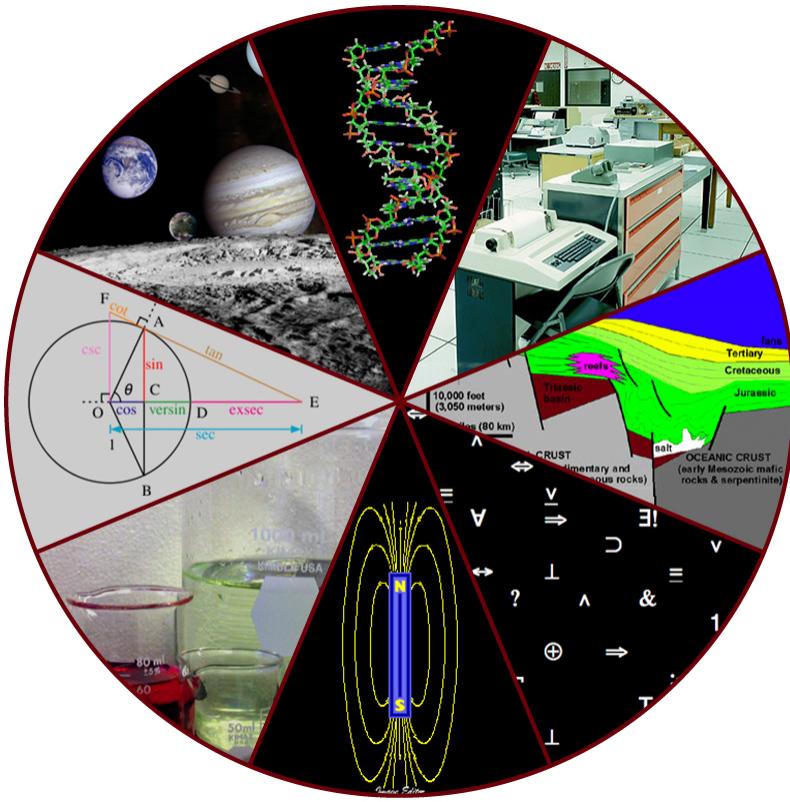
that the application of the scientific method plays a major role in science. The **scientific method** is a method of research with defined steps that include experiments and careful observation.

The steps of the scientific method will be examined in detail later, but one of the most important aspects of this method is the testing of hypotheses by means of repeatable experiments. A **hypothesis** is a suggested explanation for an event, which can be tested. Although using the scientific method is inherent to science, it is inadequate in determining what science is. This is because it is relatively easy to apply the scientific method to disciplines such as physics and chemistry, but when it comes to disciplines like archaeology, psychology, and geology, the scientific method becomes less applicable as it becomes more difficult to repeat experiments.

These areas of study are still sciences, however. Consider archeology—even though one cannot perform repeatable experiments, hypotheses may still be supported. For instance, an archeologist can hypothesize that an ancient culture existed based on finding a piece of pottery. Further hypotheses could be made about various characteristics of this culture, and these hypotheses may be found to be correct or false through continued support or contradictions from other findings. A hypothesis may become a verified theory. A **theory** is a tested and confirmed explanation for observations or phenomena. Science may be better defined as fields of study that attempt to comprehend the nature of the universe.

Natural Sciences

What would you expect to see in a museum of natural sciences? Frogs? Plants? Dinosaur skeletons? Exhibits about how the brain functions? A planetarium? Gems and minerals? Or, maybe all of the above? Science includes such diverse fields as astronomy, biology, computer sciences, geology, logic, physics, chemistry, and mathematics ([\[link\]](#)). However, those fields of science related to the physical world and its phenomena and processes are considered **natural sciences**. Thus, a museum of natural sciences might contain any of the items listed above.



The diversity of scientific fields includes astronomy, biology, computer science, geology, logic, physics, chemistry, mathematics, and many other fields. (credit: “Image Editor”/Flickr)

There is no complete agreement when it comes to defining what the natural sciences include, however. For some experts, the natural sciences are astronomy, biology, chemistry, earth science, and physics. Other scholars choose to divide natural sciences into **life sciences**, which study living things and include biology, and **physical sciences**, which study nonliving matter and include astronomy, geology, physics, and chemistry. Some disciplines such as biophysics and biochemistry build on both life and physical sciences and are interdisciplinary. Natural sciences are sometimes referred to as “hard science” because they rely on the use of quantitative data; social sciences that study society and human behavior are more likely to use qualitative assessments to drive investigations and findings.

Not surprisingly, the natural science of biology has many branches or subdisciplines. Cell biologists study cell structure and function, while biologists who study anatomy investigate the structure of an entire organism. Those biologists studying physiology, however, focus on the internal functioning of an organism. Some areas of biology focus on only particular types of living things. For example, botanists explore plants, while zoologists specialize in animals.

Scientific Reasoning

One thing is common to all forms of science: an ultimate goal “to know.” Curiosity and inquiry are the driving forces for the development of science. Scientists seek to understand the world and the way it operates. To do this, they use two methods of logical thinking: inductive reasoning and deductive reasoning.

Inductive reasoning is a form of logical thinking that uses related observations to arrive at a general conclusion. This type of reasoning is common in descriptive science. A life scientist such as a biologist makes observations and records them. These data can be qualitative or quantitative, and the raw data can be supplemented with drawings, pictures, photos, or videos. From many observations, the scientist can infer conclusions (inductions) based on evidence. Inductive reasoning involves formulating generalizations inferred from careful observation and the analysis of a large amount of data. Brain studies provide an example. In this type of research, many live brains are observed while people are doing a specific activity, such as viewing images of food. The part of the brain that “lights up” during this activity is then predicted to be the part controlling the response to the selected stimulus, in this case, images of food. The “lighting up” of the various areas of the brain is caused by excess absorption of radioactive sugar derivatives by active areas of the brain. The resultant increase in radioactivity is observed by a scanner. Then, researchers can stimulate that part of the brain to see if similar responses result.

Deductive reasoning or deduction is the type of logic used in hypothesis-based science. In deductive reason, the pattern of thinking moves in the opposite direction as compared to inductive reasoning. **Deductive reasoning** is a form of logical thinking that uses a general principle or law to forecast specific results. From those general principles, a scientist can extrapolate and predict the specific results that would be valid as long as the general principles are valid. Studies in climate change can illustrate this type of reasoning. For example, scientists may predict that if the climate becomes warmer in a particular region, then the distribution of plants and animals should change. These predictions have been made and tested, and many such changes have been found, such as the modification of arable areas for agriculture, with change based on temperature averages.

Both types of logical thinking are related to the two main pathways of scientific study: descriptive science and hypothesis-based science.

Descriptive (or discovery) science, which is usually inductive, aims to observe, explore, and discover, while **hypothesis-based science**, which is usually deductive, begins with a specific question or problem and a potential answer or solution that can be tested. The boundary between these two forms of study is often blurred, and most scientific endeavors combine both approaches. The fuzzy boundary becomes apparent when thinking about how easily observation can lead to specific questions. For example, a gentleman in the 1940s observed that the burr seeds that stuck to his clothes and his dog's fur had a tiny hook structure. On closer inspection, he discovered that the burrs' gripping device was more reliable than a zipper. He eventually developed a company and produced the hook-and-loop fastener popularly known today as Velcro. Descriptive science and hypothesis-based science are in continuous dialogue.

The Scientific Method

Biologists study the living world by posing questions about it and seeking science-based responses. This approach is common to other sciences as well and is often referred to as the scientific method. The scientific method was used even in ancient times, but it was first documented by England's Sir Francis Bacon (1561–1626) ([\[link\]](#)), who set up inductive methods for scientific inquiry. The scientific method is not exclusively used by

biologists but can be applied to almost all fields of study as a logical, rational problem-solving method.



Sir Francis Bacon
(1561–1626) is
credited with being
the first to define
the scientific
method. (credit:
Paul van Somer)

The scientific process typically starts with an observation (often a problem to be solved) that leads to a question. Let's think about a simple problem that starts with an observation and apply the scientific method to solve the problem. One Monday morning, a student arrives at class and quickly discovers that the classroom is too warm. That is an observation that also describes a problem: the classroom is too warm. The student then asks a question: "Why is the classroom so warm?"

Proposing a Hypothesis

Recall that a hypothesis is a suggested explanation that can be tested. To solve a problem, several hypotheses may be proposed. For example, one hypothesis might be, “The classroom is warm because no one turned on the air conditioning.” But there could be other responses to the question, and therefore other hypotheses may be proposed. A second hypothesis might be, “The classroom is warm because there is a power failure, and so the air conditioning doesn’t work.”

Once a hypothesis has been selected, the student can make a prediction. A prediction is similar to a hypothesis but it typically has the format “If . . . then . . .” For example, the prediction for the first hypothesis might be, “*If* the student turns on the air conditioning, *then* the classroom will no longer be too warm.”

Testing a Hypothesis

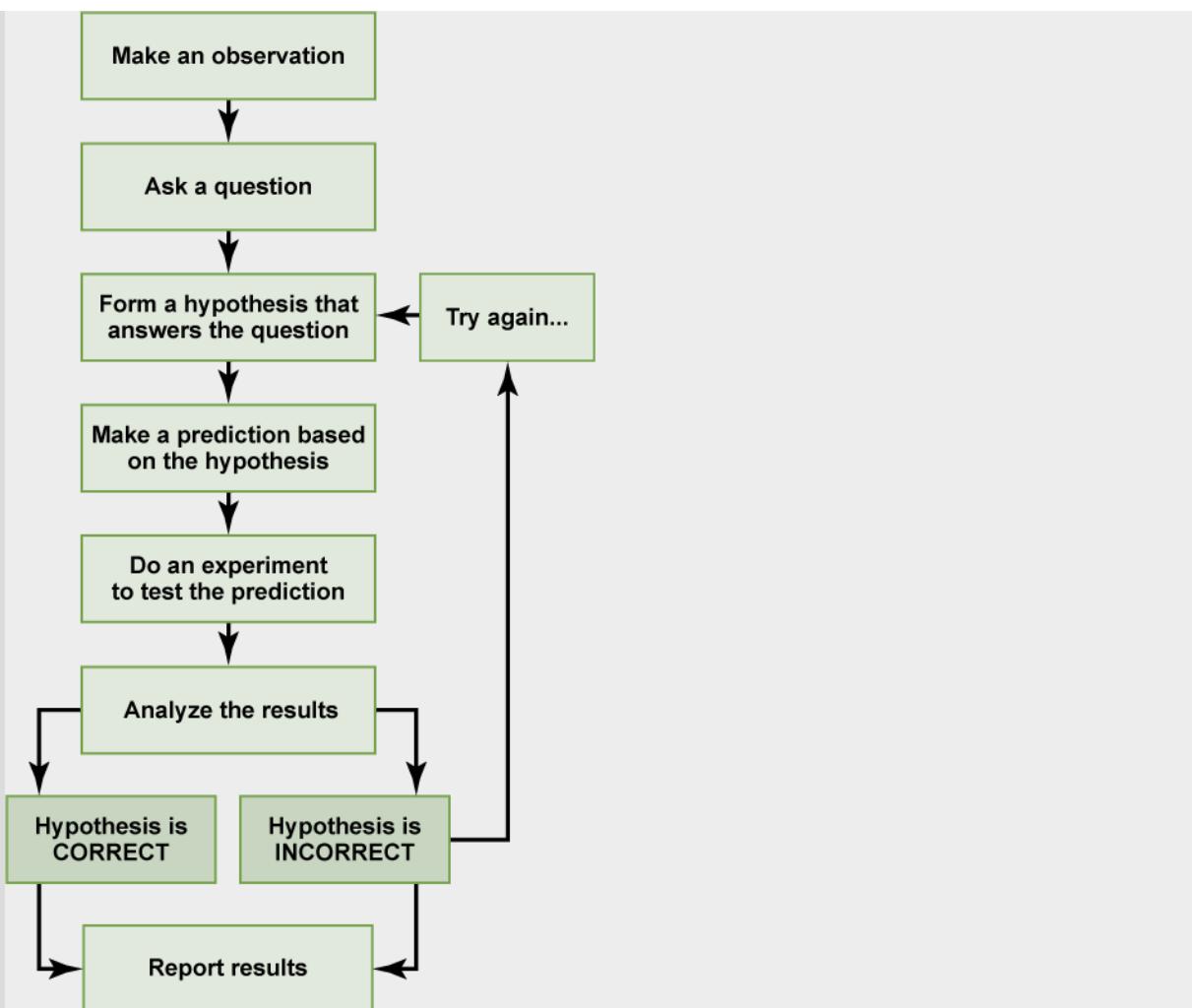
A valid hypothesis must be testable. It should also be **falsifiable**, meaning that it can be disproven by experimental results. Importantly, science does not claim to “prove” anything because scientific understandings are always subject to modification with further information. This step—openness to disproving ideas—is what distinguishes sciences from non-sciences. The presence of the supernatural, for instance, is neither testable nor falsifiable. To test a hypothesis, a researcher will conduct one or more experiments designed to eliminate one or more of the hypotheses. Each experiment will have one or more variables and one or more controls. A **variable** is any part of the experiment that can vary or change during the experiment. The **control group** contains every feature of the experimental group except it is not given the manipulation that is hypothesized about. Therefore, if the results of the experimental group differ from the control group, the difference must be due to the hypothesized manipulation, rather than some outside factor. Look for the variables and controls in the examples that follow. To test the first hypothesis, the student would find out if the air conditioning is on. If the air conditioning is turned on but does not work, there should be another reason, and this hypothesis should be rejected. To

test the second hypothesis, the student could check if the lights in the classroom are functional. If so, there is no power failure and this hypothesis should be rejected. Each hypothesis should be tested by carrying out appropriate experiments. Be aware that rejecting one hypothesis does not determine whether or not the other hypotheses can be accepted; it simply eliminates one hypothesis that is not valid ([\[link\]](#)). Using the scientific method, the hypotheses that are inconsistent with experimental data are rejected.

While this “warm classroom” example is based on observational results, other hypotheses and experiments might have clearer controls. For instance, a student might attend class on Monday and realize she had difficulty concentrating on the lecture. One observation to explain this occurrence might be, “When I eat breakfast before class, I am better able to pay attention.” The student could then design an experiment with a control to test this hypothesis.

In hypothesis-based science, specific results are predicted from a general premise. This type of reasoning is called deductive reasoning: deduction proceeds from the general to the particular. But the reverse of the process is also possible: sometimes, scientists reach a general conclusion from a number of specific observations. This type of reasoning is called inductive reasoning, and it proceeds from the particular to the general. Inductive and deductive reasoning are often used in tandem to advance scientific knowledge ([\[link\]](#)). In recent years a new approach of testing hypotheses has developed as a result of an exponential growth of data deposited in various databases. Using computer algorithms and statistical analyses of data in databases, a new field of so-called "data research" (also referred to as "in silico" research) provides new methods of data analyses and their interpretation. This will increase the demand for specialists in both biology and computer science, a promising career opportunity.

Note:
Art Connection



The scientific method consists of a series of well-defined steps. If a hypothesis is not supported by experimental data, a new hypothesis can be proposed.

In the example below, the scientific method is used to solve an everyday problem. Order the scientific method steps (numbered items) with the process of solving the everyday problem (lettered items). Based on the results of the experiment, is the hypothesis correct? If it is incorrect, propose some alternative hypotheses.

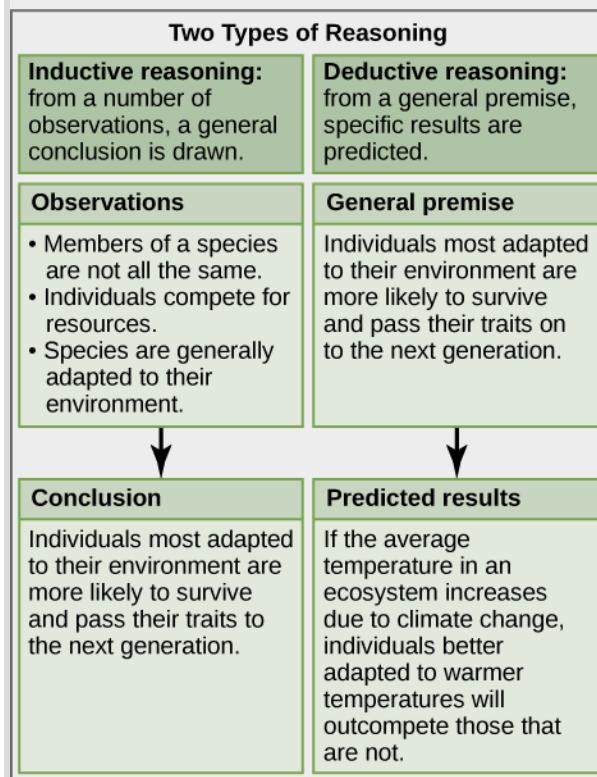
1. Observation

2. Question
3. Hypothesis (answer)
4. Prediction
5. Experiment
6. Result

- a. There is something wrong with the electrical outlet.
- b. If something is wrong with the outlet, my coffeemaker also won't work when plugged into it.
- c. My toaster doesn't toast my bread.
- d. I plug my coffee maker into the outlet.
- e. My coffeemaker works.
- f. Why doesn't my toaster work?

Note:

Art Connection



Scientists use two types of reasoning, inductive and deductive reasoning, to advance scientific knowledge. As is the case in this example, the conclusion from inductive reasoning can often become the premise for inductive reasoning.

Decide if each of the following is an example of inductive or deductive reasoning.

1. All flying birds and insects have wings. Birds and insects flap their wings as they move through the air. Therefore, wings enable flight.
2. Insects generally survive mild winters better than harsh ones. Therefore, insect pests will become more problematic if global temperatures increase.
3. Chromosomes, the carriers of DNA, separate into daughter cells during cell division. Therefore, DNA is the genetic material.
4. Animals as diverse as humans, insects, and wolves all exhibit social behavior. Therefore, social behavior must have an evolutionary advantage.

The scientific method may seem too rigid and structured. It is important to keep in mind that, although scientists often follow this sequence, there is flexibility. Sometimes an experiment leads to conclusions that favor a change in approach; often, an experiment brings entirely new scientific questions to the puzzle. Many times, science does not operate in a linear fashion; instead, scientists continually draw inferences and make generalizations, finding patterns as their research proceeds. Scientific reasoning is more complex than the scientific method alone suggests. Notice, too, that the scientific method can be applied to solving problems that aren't necessarily scientific in nature.

Two Types of Science: Basic Science and Applied Science

The scientific community has been debating for the last few decades about the value of different types of science. Is it valuable to pursue science for the sake of simply gaining knowledge, or does scientific knowledge only have worth if we can apply it to solving a specific problem or to bettering our lives? This question focuses on the differences between two types of science: basic science and applied science.

Basic science or “pure” science seeks to expand knowledge regardless of the short-term application of that knowledge. It is not focused on developing a product or a service of immediate public or commercial value. The immediate goal of basic science is knowledge for knowledge’s sake, though this does not mean that, in the end, it may not result in a practical application.

In contrast, **applied science** or “technology,” aims to use science to solve real-world problems, making it possible, for example, to improve a crop yield, find a cure for a particular disease, or save animals threatened by a natural disaster ([\[link\]](#)). In applied science, the problem is usually defined for the researcher.



After Hurricane Ike struck the Gulf Coast in 2008, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service rescued this

brown pelican. Thanks to applied science, scientists knew how to rehabilitate the bird. (credit: FEMA)

Some individuals may perceive applied science as “useful” and basic science as “useless.” A question these people might pose to a scientist advocating knowledge acquisition would be, “What for?” A careful look at the history of science, however, reveals that basic knowledge has resulted in many remarkable applications of great value. Many scientists think that a basic understanding of science is necessary before an application is developed; therefore, applied science relies on the results generated through basic science. Other scientists think that it is time to move on from basic science and instead to find solutions to actual problems. Both approaches are valid. It is true that there are problems that demand immediate attention; however, few solutions would be found without the help of the wide knowledge foundation generated through basic science.

One example of how basic and applied science can work together to solve practical problems occurred after the discovery of DNA structure led to an understanding of the molecular mechanisms governing DNA replication. Strands of DNA, unique in every human, are found in our cells, where they provide the instructions necessary for life. During DNA replication, DNA makes new copies of itself, shortly before a cell divides. Understanding the mechanisms of DNA replication enabled scientists to develop laboratory techniques that are now used to identify genetic diseases, pinpoint individuals who were at a crime scene, and determine paternity. Without basic science, it is unlikely that applied science would exist.

Another example of the link between basic and applied research is the Human Genome Project, a study in which each human chromosome was analyzed and mapped to determine the precise sequence of DNA subunits and the exact location of each gene. (The gene is the basic unit of heredity; an individual’s complete collection of genes is his or her genome.) Other less complex organisms have also been studied as part of this project in

order to gain a better understanding of human chromosomes. The Human Genome Project ([\[link\]](#)) relied on basic research carried out with simple organisms and, later, with the human genome. An important end goal eventually became using the data for applied research, seeking cures and early diagnoses for genetically related diseases.



The Human Genome Project was a 13-year collaborative effort among researchers working in several different fields of science. The project, which sequenced the entire human genome, was completed in 2003. (credit: the U.S. Department of Energy Genome Programs (<http://genomics.energy.gov>))

While research efforts in both basic science and applied science are usually carefully planned, it is important to note that some discoveries are made by **serendipity**, that is, by means of a fortunate accident or a lucky surprise. Penicillin was discovered when biologist Alexander Fleming accidentally left a petri dish of *Staphylococcus* bacteria open. An unwanted mold grew on the dish, killing the bacteria. The mold turned out to be *Penicillium*, and a new antibiotic was discovered. Even in the highly organized world of science, luck—when combined with an observant, curious mind—can lead to unexpected breakthroughs.

Reporting Scientific Work

Whether scientific research is basic science or applied science, scientists must share their findings in order for other researchers to expand and build upon their discoveries. Collaboration with other scientists—when planning, conducting, and analyzing results—are all important for scientific research. For this reason, important aspects of a scientist's work are communicating with peers and disseminating results to peers. Scientists can share results by presenting them at a scientific meeting or conference, but this approach can reach only the select few who are present. Instead, most scientists present their results in peer-reviewed manuscripts that are published in scientific journals. **Peer-reviewed manuscripts** are scientific papers that are reviewed by a scientist's colleagues, or peers. These colleagues are qualified individuals, often experts in the same research area, who judge whether or not the scientist's work is suitable for publication. The process of peer review helps to ensure that the research described in a scientific paper or grant proposal is original, significant, logical, and thorough. Grant proposals, which are requests for research funding, are also subject to peer review. Scientists publish their work so other scientists can reproduce their experiments under similar or different conditions to expand on the findings. The experimental results must be consistent with the findings of other scientists.

A scientific paper is very different from creative writing. Although creativity is required to design experiments, there are fixed guidelines when it comes to presenting scientific results. First, scientific writing must be

brief, concise, and accurate. A scientific paper needs to be succinct but detailed enough to allow peers to reproduce the experiments.

The scientific paper consists of several specific sections—introduction, materials and methods, results, and discussion. This structure is sometimes called the “IMRaD” format. There are usually acknowledgment and reference sections as well as an **abstract** (a concise summary) at the beginning of the paper. There might be additional sections depending on the type of paper and the journal where it will be published; for example, some review papers require an outline.

The **introduction** starts with brief, but broad, background information about what is known in the field. A good introduction also gives the rationale of the work; it justifies the work carried out and also briefly mentions the end of the paper, where the hypothesis or research question driving the research will be presented. The introduction refers to the published scientific work of others and therefore requires citations following the style of the journal. Using the work or ideas of others without proper citation is considered **plagiarism**.

The **materials and methods** section includes a complete and accurate description of the substances used, and the method and techniques used by the researchers to gather data. The description should be thorough enough to allow another researcher to repeat the experiment and obtain similar results, but it does not have to be verbose. This section will also include information on how measurements were made and what types of calculations and statistical analyses were used to examine raw data. Although the materials and methods section gives an accurate description of the experiments, it does not discuss them.

Some journals require a results section followed by a discussion section, but it is more common to combine both. If the journal does not allow the combination of both sections, the **results** section simply narrates the findings without any further interpretation. The results are presented by means of tables or graphs, but no duplicate information should be presented. In the **discussion** section, the researcher will interpret the results, describe how variables may be related, and attempt to explain the observations. It is indispensable to conduct an extensive literature search to

put the results in the context of previously published scientific research. Therefore, proper citations are included in this section as well.

Finally, the **conclusion** section summarizes the importance of the experimental findings. While the scientific paper almost certainly answered one or more scientific questions that were stated, any good research should lead to more questions. Therefore, a well-done scientific paper leaves doors open for the researcher and others to continue and expand on the findings.

Review articles do not follow the IMRAD format because they do not present original scientific findings, or primary literature; instead, they summarize and comment on findings that were published as primary literature and typically include extensive reference sections.

Section Summary

Biology is the science that studies living organisms and their interactions with one another and their environments. Science attempts to describe and understand the nature of the universe in whole or in part by rational means. Science has many fields; those fields related to the physical world and its phenomena are considered natural sciences.

Science can be basic or applied. The main goal of basic science is to expand knowledge without any expectation of short-term practical application of that knowledge. The primary goal of applied research, however, is to solve practical problems.

Two types of logical reasoning are used in science. Inductive reasoning uses particular results to produce general scientific principles. Deductive reasoning is a form of logical thinking that predicts results by applying general principles. The common thread throughout scientific research is the use of the scientific method, a step-based process that consists of making observations, defining a problem, posing hypotheses, testing these hypotheses, and drawing one or more conclusions. The testing uses proper controls. Scientists present their results in peer-reviewed scientific papers published in scientific journals. A scientific research paper consists of several well-defined sections: introduction, materials and methods, results,

and, finally, a concluding discussion. Review papers summarize the research done in a particular field over a period of time.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem:

[\[link\]](#) In the example below, the scientific method is used to solve an everyday problem. Order the scientific method steps (numbered items) with the process of solving the everyday problem (lettered items). Based on the results of the experiment, is the hypothesis correct? If it is incorrect, propose some alternative hypotheses.

1. Observation
2. Question
3. Hypothesis (answer)
4. Prediction
5. Experiment
6. Result

- a. There is something wrong with the electrical outlet.
- b. If something is wrong with the outlet, my coffeemaker also won't work when plugged into it.
- c. My toaster doesn't toast my bread.
- d. I plug my coffee maker into the outlet.
- e. My coffeemaker works.
- f. Why doesn't my toaster work?

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) 1: C; 2: F; 3: A; 4: B; 5: D; 6: E. The original hypothesis is incorrect, as the coffeemaker works when plugged into the outlet. Alternative hypotheses include that the toaster might be broken or that the toaster wasn't turned on.

Exercise:

Problem:

[\[link\]](#) Decide if each of the following is an example of inductive or deductive reasoning.

1. All flying birds and insects have wings. Birds and insects flap their wings as they move through the air. Therefore, wings enable flight.
2. Insects generally survive mild winters better than harsh ones. Therefore, insect pests will become more problematic if global temperatures increase.
3. Chromosomes, the carriers of DNA, separate into daughter cells during cell division. Therefore, DNA is the genetic material.
4. Animals as diverse as humans, insects, and wolves all exhibit social behavior. Therefore, social behavior must have an evolutionary advantage.

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) 1: inductive; 2: deductive; 3: deductive; 4: inductive.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem: The first forms of life on Earth were _____.

- a. plants
- b. microorganisms
- c. birds
- d. dinosaurs

Solution:

B

Exercise:

Problem:

A suggested and testable explanation for an event is called a _____.

- a. hypothesis
- b. variable
- c. theory
- d. control

Solution:

A

Exercise:

Problem:

Which of the following sciences is not considered a natural science?

- a. biology
- b. astronomy
- c. physics
- d. computer science

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

The type of logical thinking that uses related observations to arrive at a general conclusion is called _____.

- a. deductive reasoning
- b. the scientific method
- c. hypothesis-based science
- d. inductive reasoning

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

The process of _____ helps to ensure that a scientist's research is original, significant, logical, and thorough.

- a. publication
- b. public speaking
- c. peer review
- d. the scientific method

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem:

A person notices that her houseplants that are regularly exposed to music seem to grow more quickly than those in rooms with no music. As a result, she determines that plants grow better when exposed to music. This example most closely resembles which type of reasoning?

- a. inductive reasoning
- b. deductive reasoning
- c. neither, because no hypothesis was made
- d. both inductive and deductive reasoning

Solution:

A

Free Response

Exercise:**Problem:**

Although the scientific method is used by most of the sciences, it can also be applied to everyday situations. Think about a problem that you may have at home, at school, or with your car, and apply the scientific method to solve it.

Solution:

Answers will vary, but should apply the steps of the scientific method. One possibility could be a car which doesn't start. The hypothesis could be that the car doesn't start because the battery is dead. The experiment would be to change the battery or to charge the battery and then check whether the car starts or not. If it starts, the problem was due to the battery, and the hypothesis is accepted.

Exercise:**Problem:**

Give an example of how applied science has had a direct effect on your daily life.

Solution:

Answers will vary. One example of how applied science has had a direct effect on daily life is the presence of vaccines. Vaccines to prevent diseases such polio, measles, tetanus, and even influenza affect daily life by contributing to individual and societal health.

Exercise:**Problem:**

Name two topics that are likely to be studied by biologists, and two areas of scientific study that would fall outside the realm of biology.

Solution:

Answers will vary. Topics that fall inside the area of biological study include how diseases affect human bodies, how pollution impacts a species' habitat, and how plants respond to their environments. Topics that fall outside of biology (the “study of life”) include how metamorphic rock is formed and how planetary orbits function.

Exercise:**Problem:**

Thinking about the topic of cancer, write a basic science question and an applied science question that a researcher interested in this topic might ask

Solution:

Answers will vary. Basic science: What evolutionary purpose might cancer serve? Applied science: What strategies might be found to prevent cancer from reproducing at the cellular level?

Glossary

abstract

opening section of a scientific paper that summarizes the research and conclusions

applied science

form of science that aims to solve real-world problems

basic science

science that seeks to expand knowledge and understanding regardless of the short-term application of that knowledge

biology

the study of living organisms and their interactions with one another and their environments

conclusion

section of a scientific paper that summarizes the importance of the experimental findings

control

part of an experiment that does not change during the experiment

deductive reasoning

form of logical thinking that uses a general inclusive statement to forecast specific results

descriptive science

(also, discovery science) form of science that aims to observe, explore, and investigate

discussion

section of a scientific paper in which the author interprets experimental results, describes how variables may be related, and attempts to explain the phenomenon in question

falsifiable

able to be disproven by experimental results

hypothesis

suggested explanation for an observation, which can be tested

hypothesis-based science

form of science that begins with a specific question and potential testable answers

inductive reasoning

form of logical thinking that uses related observations to arrive at a general conclusion

introduction

opening section of a scientific paper, which provides background information about what was known in the field prior to the research reported in the paper

life science

field of science, such as biology, that studies living things

materials and methods

section of a scientific paper that includes a complete description of the substances, methods, and techniques used by the researchers to gather data

natural science

field of science that is related to the physical world and its phenomena and processes

peer-reviewed manuscript

scientific paper that is reviewed by a scientist's colleagues who are experts in the field of study

physical science

field of science, such as geology, astronomy, physics, and chemistry, that studies nonliving matter

plagiarism

using other people's work or ideas without proper citation, creating the false impression that those are the author's original ideas

results

section of a scientific paper in which the author narrates the experimental findings and presents relevant figures, pictures, diagrams, graphs, and tables, without any further interpretation

review article

paper that summarizes and comments on findings that were published as primary literature

science

knowledge that covers general truths or the operation of general laws, especially when acquired and tested by the scientific method

scientific method

method of research with defined steps that include observation, formulation of a hypothesis, testing, and confirming or falsifying the hypothesis

serendipity

fortunate accident or a lucky surprise

theory

tested and confirmed explanation for observations or phenomena

variable

part of an experiment that the experimenter can vary or change

Themes and Concepts of Biology

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Identify and describe the properties of life
- Describe the levels of organization among living things
- Recognize and interpret a phylogenetic tree
- List examples of different sub disciplines in biology

Biology is the science that studies life, but what exactly is life? This may sound like a silly question with an obvious response, but it is not always easy to define life. For example, a branch of biology called virology studies viruses, which exhibit some of the characteristics of living entities but lack others. It turns out that although viruses can attack living organisms, cause diseases, and even reproduce, they do not meet the criteria that biologists use to define life. Consequently, virologists are not biologists, strictly speaking. Similarly, some biologists study the early molecular evolution that gave rise to life; since the events that preceded life are not biological events, these scientists are also excluded from biology in the strict sense of the term.

From its earliest beginnings, biology has wrestled with three questions: What are the shared properties that make something “alive”? And once we know something is alive, how do we find meaningful levels of organization in its structure? And, finally, when faced with the remarkable diversity of life, how do we organize the different kinds of organisms so that we can better understand them? As new organisms are discovered every day, biologists continue to seek answers to these and other questions.

Properties of Life

All living organisms share several key characteristics or functions: order, sensitivity or response to the environment, reproduction, adaptation, growth and development, regulation, homeostasis, energy processing, and evolution. When viewed together, these nine characteristics serve to define life.

Order



A toad represents a highly organized structure consisting of cells, tissues, organs, and organ systems. (credit: “Ivengo”/Wikimedia Commons)

Organisms are highly organized, coordinated structures that consist of one or more cells. Even very simple, single-celled organisms are remarkably complex: inside each cell, atoms make up molecules; these in turn make up cell organelles and other cellular inclusions. In multicellular organisms ([\[link\]](#)), similar cells form tissues. Tissues, in turn, collaborate to create organs (body structures with a distinct function). Organs work together to form organ systems.

Sensitivity or Response to Stimuli



The leaves of this sensitive plant (*Mimosa pudica*) will instantly droop and fold when touched. After a few minutes, the plant returns to normal. (credit: Alex Lomas)

Organisms respond to diverse stimuli. For example, plants can bend toward a source of light, climb on fences and walls, or respond to touch ([\[link\]](#)). Even tiny bacteria can move toward or away from chemicals (a process called *chemotaxis*) or light (*phototaxis*). Movement toward a stimulus is considered a positive response, while movement away from a stimulus is considered a negative response.

Note:

Link to Learning



Watch [this video](#) to see how plants respond to a stimulus—from opening to light, to wrapping a tendril around a branch, to capturing prey.

Reproduction

Single-celled organisms reproduce by first duplicating their DNA, and then dividing it equally as the cell prepares to divide to form two new cells. Multicellular organisms often produce specialized reproductive germline cells that will form new individuals. When reproduction occurs, genes containing DNA are passed along to an organism's offspring. These genes ensure that the offspring will belong to the same species and will have similar characteristics, such as size and shape.

Growth and Development

Organisms grow and develop following specific instructions coded for by their genes. These genes provide instructions that will direct cellular growth and development, ensuring that a species' young ([\[link\]](#)) will grow up to exhibit many of the same characteristics as its parents.



Although no two look alike, these kittens have inherited genes from both parents and share many of the same characteristics. (credit: Rocky Mountain Feline Rescue)

Regulation

Even the smallest organisms are complex and require multiple regulatory mechanisms to coordinate internal functions, respond to stimuli, and cope with environmental stresses. Two examples of internal functions regulated in an organism are nutrient transport and blood flow. Organs (groups of tissues working together) perform specific functions, such as carrying oxygen throughout the body, removing wastes, delivering nutrients to every cell, and cooling the body.

Homeostasis



Polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*) and other mammals living in ice-covered regions maintain their body temperature by generating heat and reducing heat loss through thick fur and a dense layer of fat under their skin. (credit: “longhorndave”/Flickr)

In order to function properly, cells need to have appropriate conditions such as proper temperature, pH, and appropriate concentration of diverse chemicals. These conditions may, however, change from one moment to the next. Organisms are able to maintain internal conditions within a narrow range almost constantly, despite environmental changes, through **homeostasis** (literally, “steady state”)—the ability of an organism to maintain constant internal conditions. For example, an organism needs to regulate body temperature through a process known as thermoregulation. Organisms that live in cold climates, such as the polar bear ([\[link\]](#)), have body structures that help them withstand low temperatures and conserve body heat. Structures that aid in this type of insulation include fur, feathers, blubber, and fat. In hot climates, organisms have methods (such as perspiration in humans or panting in dogs) that help them to shed excess body heat.

Energy Processing



The California condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*) uses chemical energy derived from food to power flight. California condors are an endangered species; this bird has a wing tag that helps biologists identify the individual. (credit: Pacific Southwest Region U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service)

All organisms use a source of energy for their metabolic activities. Some organisms capture energy from the sun and convert it into chemical energy

in food; others use chemical energy in molecules they take in as food ([\[link\]](#)).

Levels of Organization of Living Things

Living things are highly organized and structured, following a hierarchy that can be examined on a scale from small to large. The **atom** is the smallest and most fundamental unit of matter. It consists of a nucleus surrounded by electrons. Atoms form molecules. A **molecule** is a chemical structure consisting of at least two atoms held together by one or more chemical bonds. Many molecules that are biologically important are **macromolecules**, large molecules that are typically formed by polymerization (a polymer is a large molecule that is made by combining smaller units called monomers, which are simpler than macromolecules). An example of a macromolecule is deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) ([\[link\]](#)), which contains the instructions for the structure and functioning of all living organisms.



All molecules, including this DNA molecule, are composed of atoms. (credit: “brian0918”/Wikimedia Commons)

Note:

[Link to Learning](#)



Watch [this video](#) that animates the three-dimensional structure of the DNA molecule shown in [\[link\]](#).

Some cells contain aggregates of macromolecules surrounded by membranes; these are called **organelles**. Organelles are small structures that exist within cells. Examples of organelles include mitochondria and chloroplasts, which carry out indispensable functions: mitochondria produce energy to power the cell, while chloroplasts enable green plants to utilize the energy in sunlight to make sugars. All living things are made of cells; the **cell** itself is the smallest fundamental unit of structure and function in living organisms. (This requirement is why viruses are not considered living: they are not made of cells. To make new viruses, they have to invade and hijack the reproductive mechanism of a living cell; only then can they obtain the materials they need to reproduce.) Some organisms consist of a single cell and others are multicellular. Cells are classified as prokaryotic or eukaryotic. **Prokaryotes** are single-celled or colonial organisms that do not have membrane-bound nuclei; in contrast, the cells of **eukaryotes** do have membrane-bound organelles and a membrane-bound nucleus.

In larger organisms, cells combine to make **tissues**, which are groups of similar cells carrying out similar or related functions. **Organs** are collections of tissues grouped together performing a common function. Organs are present not only in animals but also in plants. An **organ system** is a higher level of organization that consists of functionally related organs. Mammals have many organ systems. For instance, the circulatory system transports blood through the body and to and from the lungs; it includes organs such as the heart and blood vessels. **Organisms** are individual living entities. For example, each tree in a forest is an organism. Single-celled

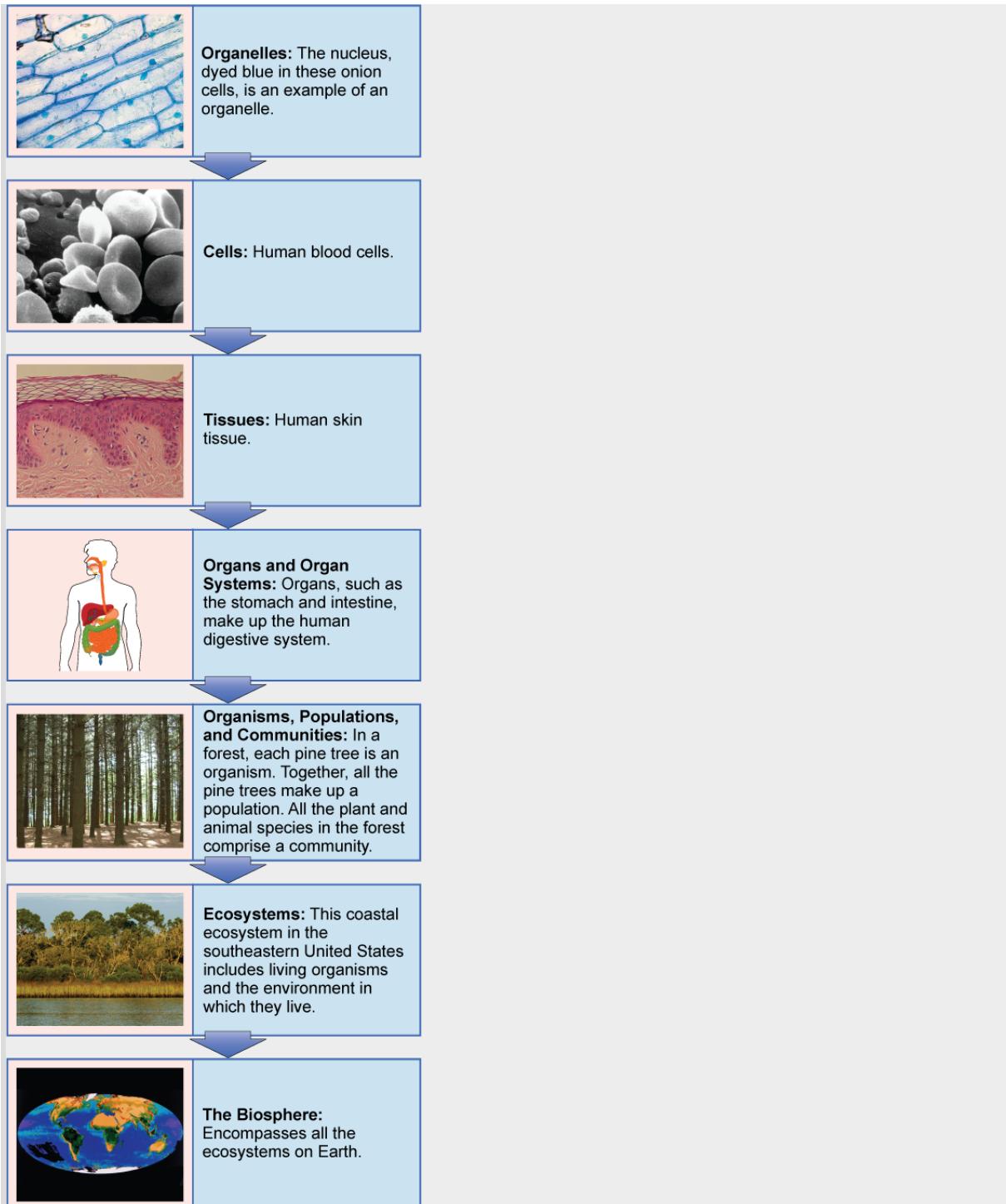
prokaryotes and single-celled eukaryotes are also considered organisms and are typically referred to as microorganisms.

All the individuals of a species living within a specific area are collectively called a **population**. For example, a forest may include many pine trees. All of these pine trees represent the population of pine trees in this forest.

Different populations may live in the same specific area. For example, the forest with the pine trees includes populations of flowering plants and also insects and microbial populations. A **community** is the sum of populations inhabiting a particular area. For instance, all of the trees, flowers, insects, and other populations in a forest form the forest's community. The forest itself is an ecosystem. An **ecosystem** consists of all the living things in a particular area together with the abiotic, non-living parts of that environment such as nitrogen in the soil or rain water. At the highest level of organization ([\[link\]](#)), the **biosphere** is the collection of all ecosystems, and it represents the zones of life on earth. It includes land, water, and even the atmosphere to a certain extent.

Note:

Art Connection



The biological levels of organization of living things are shown. From a single organelle to the

entire biosphere, living organisms are parts of a highly structured hierarchy. (credit “organelles”: modification of work by Umberto Salvagnin; credit “cells”: modification of work by Bruce Wetzel, Harry Schaefer/ National Cancer Institute; credit “tissues”: modification of work by Kilbad; Fama Clamosa; Mikael Häggström; credit “organs”: modification of work by Mariana Ruiz Villareal; credit “organisms”: modification of work by "Crystal"/Flickr; credit “ecosystems”: modification of work by US Fish and Wildlife Service Headquarters; credit “biosphere”: modification of work by NASA)

Which of the following statements is false?

- a. Tissues exist within organs which exist within organ systems.
- b. Communities exist within populations which exist within ecosystems.
- c. Organelles exist within cells which exist within tissues.
- d. Communities exist within ecosystems which exist in the biosphere.

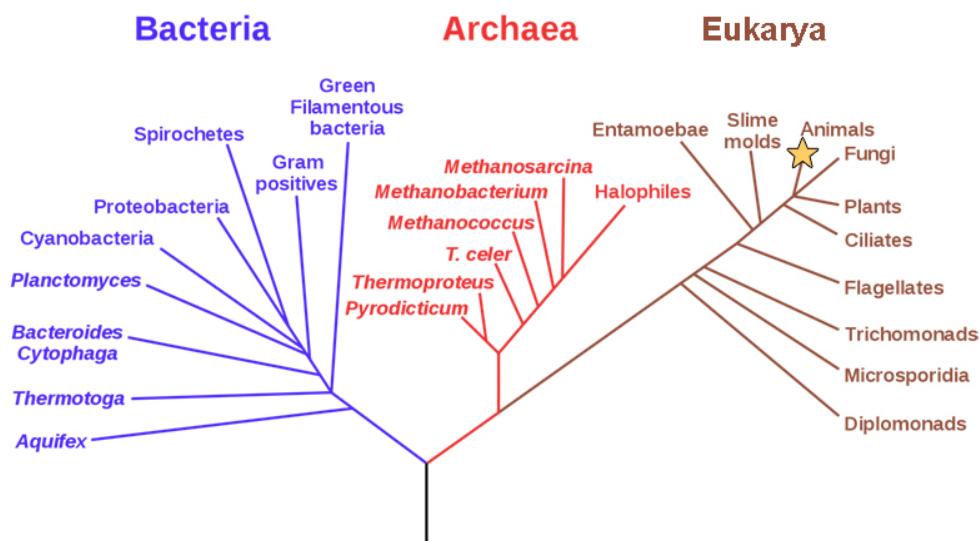
The Diversity of Life

The fact that biology, as a science, has such a broad scope has to do with the tremendous diversity of life on earth. The source of this diversity is **evolution**, the process of gradual change during which new species arise from older species. Evolutionary biologists study the evolution of living things in everything from the microscopic world to ecosystems.

The evolution of various life forms on Earth can be summarized in a phylogenetic tree ([\[link\]](#)). A **phylogenetic tree** is a diagram showing the evolutionary relationships among biological species based on similarities and differences in genetic or physical traits or both. A phylogenetic tree is composed of nodes and branches. The internal nodes represent ancestors and are points in evolution when, based on scientific evidence, an ancestor is thought to have diverged to form two new species. The length of each branch is proportional to the time elapsed since the split.

Phylogenetic Tree of Life

★ = You are here



This phylogenetic tree was constructed by microbiologist Carl Woese using data obtained from sequencing ribosomal RNA genes. The tree shows the separation of living organisms into three domains: Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya. Bacteria and Archaea are prokaryotes, single-celled organisms lacking intracellular organelles.
(credit: Eric Gaba; NASA Astrobiology Institute)

Note:

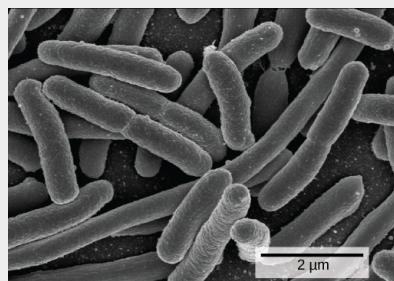
Evolution Connection

Carl Woese and the Phylogenetic Tree

In the past, biologists grouped living organisms into five kingdoms: animals, plants, fungi, protists, and bacteria. The organizational scheme was based mainly on physical features, as opposed to physiology, biochemistry, or molecular biology, all of which are used by modern systematics. The pioneering work of American microbiologist Carl Woese in the early 1970s has shown, however, that life on Earth has evolved along three lineages, now called domains—Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya. The first two are prokaryotic cells with microbes that lack membrane-enclosed nuclei and organelles. The third domain contains the eukaryotes and includes unicellular microorganisms together with the four original kingdoms (excluding bacteria). Woese defined Archaea as a new domain, and this resulted in a new taxonomic tree ([\[link\]](#)). Many organisms belonging to the Archaea domain live under extreme conditions and are called extremophiles. To construct his tree, Woese used genetic relationships rather than similarities based on morphology (shape). Woese's tree was constructed from comparative sequencing of the genes that are universally distributed, present in every organism, and conserved (meaning that these genes have remained essentially unchanged throughout evolution). Woese's approach was revolutionary because comparisons of physical features are insufficient to differentiate between the prokaryotes that appear fairly similar in spite of their tremendous biochemical diversity and genetic variability ([\[link\]](#)). The comparison of homologous DNA and

RNA sequences provided Woese with a sensitive device that revealed the extensive variability of prokaryotes, and which justified the separation of the prokaryotes into two domains: bacteria and archaea.

These images represent different domains. The (a) bacteria in this micrograph belong to Domain Bacteria, while the (b) extremophiles (not visible) living in this hot vent belong to Domain Archaea. Both the (c) sunflower and (d) lion are part of Domain Eukarya. (credit a: modification of work by Drew March; credit b: modification of work by Steve Jurvetson; credit c: modification of work by Michael Arrighi; credit d: modification of work by Leszek Leszcynski)



(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Branches of Biological Study

The scope of biology is broad and therefore contains many branches and subdisciplines. Biologists may pursue one of those subdisciplines and work

in a more focused field. For instance, **molecular biology** and **biochemistry** study biological processes at the molecular and chemical level, including interactions among molecules such as DNA, RNA, and proteins, as well as the way they are regulated. **Microbiology**, the study of microorganisms, is the study of the structure and function of single-celled organisms. It is quite a broad branch itself, and depending on the subject of study, there are also microbial physiologists, ecologists, and geneticists, among others.

Note:

Career Connection

Forensic Scientist

Forensic science is the application of science to answer questions related to the law. Biologists as well as chemists and biochemists can be forensic scientists. Forensic scientists provide scientific evidence for use in courts, and their job involves examining trace materials associated with crimes. Interest in forensic science has increased in the last few years, possibly because of popular television shows that feature forensic scientists on the job. Also, the development of molecular techniques and the establishment of DNA databases have expanded the types of work that forensic scientists can do. Their job activities are primarily related to crimes against people such as murder, rape, and assault. Their work involves analyzing samples such as hair, blood, and other body fluids and also processing DNA ([\[link\]](#)) found in many different environments and materials. Forensic scientists also analyze other biological evidence left at crime scenes, such as insect larvae or pollen grains. Students who want to pursue careers in forensic science will most likely be required to take chemistry and biology courses as well as some intensive math courses.



This forensic scientist works in a DNA extraction room at the U.S.

Army Criminal Investigation
Laboratory at Fort Gillem, GA.
(credit: United States Army CID
Command Public Affairs)

Another field of biological study, **neurobiology**, studies the biology of the nervous system, and although it is considered a branch of biology, it is also recognized as an interdisciplinary field of study known as neuroscience. Because of its interdisciplinary nature, this subdiscipline studies different functions of the nervous system using molecular, cellular, developmental, medical, and computational approaches.



Researchers work on excavating dinosaur fossils at a site in Castellón, Spain. (credit: Mario Modesto)

Paleontology, another branch of biology, uses fossils to study life's history ([\[link\]](#)). **Zoology** and **botany** are the study of animals and plants, respectively. Biologists can also specialize as biotechnologists, ecologists, or physiologists, to name just a few areas. This is just a small sample of the many fields that biologists can pursue.

Biology is the culmination of the achievements of the natural sciences from their inception to today. Excitingly, it is the cradle of emerging sciences, such as the biology of brain activity, genetic engineering of custom organisms, and the biology of evolution that uses the laboratory tools of molecular biology to retrace the earliest stages of life on earth. A scan of news headlines—whether reporting on immunizations, a newly discovered species, sports doping, or a genetically-modified food—demonstrates the way biology is active in and important to our everyday world.

Section Summary

Biology is the science of life. All living organisms share several key properties such as order, sensitivity or response to stimuli, reproduction, growth and development, regulation, homeostasis, and energy processing. Living things are highly organized parts of a hierarchy that includes atoms, molecules, organelles, cells, tissues, organs, and organ systems. Organisms, in turn, are grouped as populations, communities, ecosystems, and the biosphere. The great diversity of life today evolved from less-diverse ancestral organisms over billions of years. A diagram called a phylogenetic tree can be used to show evolutionary relationships among organisms.

Biology is very broad and includes many branches and subdisciplines. Examples include molecular biology, microbiology, neurobiology, zoology, and botany, among others.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem: [\[link\]](#) Which of the following statements is false?

- a. Tissues exist within organs which exist within organ systems.
- b. Communities exist within populations which exist within ecosystems.
- c. Organelles exist within cells which exist within tissues.
- d. Communities exist within ecosystems which exist in the biosphere.

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) Communities exist within populations which exist within ecosystems.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem:

The smallest unit of biological structure that meets the functional requirements of “living” is the _____.

- a. organ
- b. organelle
- c. cell
- d. macromolecule

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem: Viruses are not considered living because they _____.

- a. are not made of cells
- b. lack cell nuclei
- c. do not contain DNA or RNA
- d. cannot reproduce

Solution:

A

Exercise:

Problem:

The presence of a membrane-enclosed nucleus is a characteristic of _____.

- a. prokaryotic cells
- b. eukaryotic cells
- c. living organisms

d. bacteria

Solution:

B

Exercise:

Problem:

A group of individuals of the same species living in the same area is called a(n) _____.

- a. family
- b. community
- c. population
- d. ecosystem

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem:

Which of the following sequences represents the hierarchy of biological organization from the most inclusive to the least complex level?

- a. organelle, tissue, biosphere, ecosystem, population
- b. organ, organism, tissue, organelle, molecule
- c. organism, community, biosphere, molecule, tissue, organ
- d. biosphere, ecosystem, community, population, organism

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

Where in a phylogenetic tree would you expect to find the organism that had evolved most recently?

- a. at the base
- b. within the branches
- c. at the nodes
- d. at the branch tips

Solution:

D

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem:

Select two items that biologists agree are necessary in order to consider an organism “alive.” For each, give an example of a non-living object that otherwise fits the definition of “alive,”

Solution:

Answers will vary. Layers of sedimentary rock have order but are not alive. Technology is capable of regulation but is not, of itself, alive.

Exercise:

Problem:

Consider the levels of organization of the biological world, and place each of these items in order from smallest level of organization to most encompassing: skin cell, elephant, water molecule, planet Earth, tropical rainforest, hydrogen atom, wolf pack, liver.

Solution:

Smallest level of organization to largest: hydrogen atom, water molecule, skin cell, liver, elephant, wolf pack, tropical rainforest, planet Earth

Exercise:**Problem:**

You go for a long walk on a hot day. Give an example of a way in which homeostasis keeps your body healthy.

Solution:

During your walk, you may begin to perspire, which cools your body and helps your body to maintain a constant internal temperature. You might also become thirsty and pause long enough for a cool drink, which will help to restore the water lost during perspiration.

Exercise:**Problem:**

Using examples, explain how biology can be studied from a microscopic approach to a global approach.

Solution:

Researchers can approach biology from the smallest to the largest, and everything in between. For instance, an ecologist may study a population of individuals, the population's community, the community's ecosystem, and the ecosystem's part in the biosphere.

When studying an individual organism, a biologist could examine the cell and its organelles, the tissues that the cells make up, the organs and their respective organ systems, and the sum total—the organism itself.

Glossary

atom

smallest and most fundamental unit of matter

biochemistry

study of the chemistry of biological organisms

biosphere

collection of all the ecosystems on Earth

botany

study of plants

cell

smallest fundamental unit of structure and function in living things

community

set of populations inhabiting a particular area

ecosystem

all the living things in a particular area together with the abiotic, nonliving parts of that environment

eukaryote

organism with cells that have nuclei and membrane-bound organelles

evolution

process of gradual change during which new species arise from older species and some species become extinct

homeostasis

ability of an organism to maintain constant internal conditions

macromolecule

large molecule, typically formed by the joining of smaller molecules

microbiology

study of the structure and function of microorganisms

molecule

chemical structure consisting of at least two atoms held together by one or more chemical bonds

molecular biology

study of biological processes and their regulation at the molecular level, including interactions among molecules such as DNA, RNA, and proteins

neurobiology

study of the biology of the nervous system

organ

collection of related tissues grouped together performing a common function

organ system

level of organization that consists of functionally related interacting organs

organelle

small structures that exist within cells and carry out cellular functions

organism

individual living entity

paleontology

study of life's history by means of fossils

phylogenetic tree

diagram showing the evolutionary relationships among various biological species based on similarities and differences in genetic or physical traits or both; in essence, a hypothesis concerning evolutionary connections

population

all of the individuals of a species living within a specific area

prokaryote

single-celled organism that lacks organelles and does not have nuclei surrounded by a nuclear membrane

tissue

group of similar cells carrying out related functions

zoology

study of animals

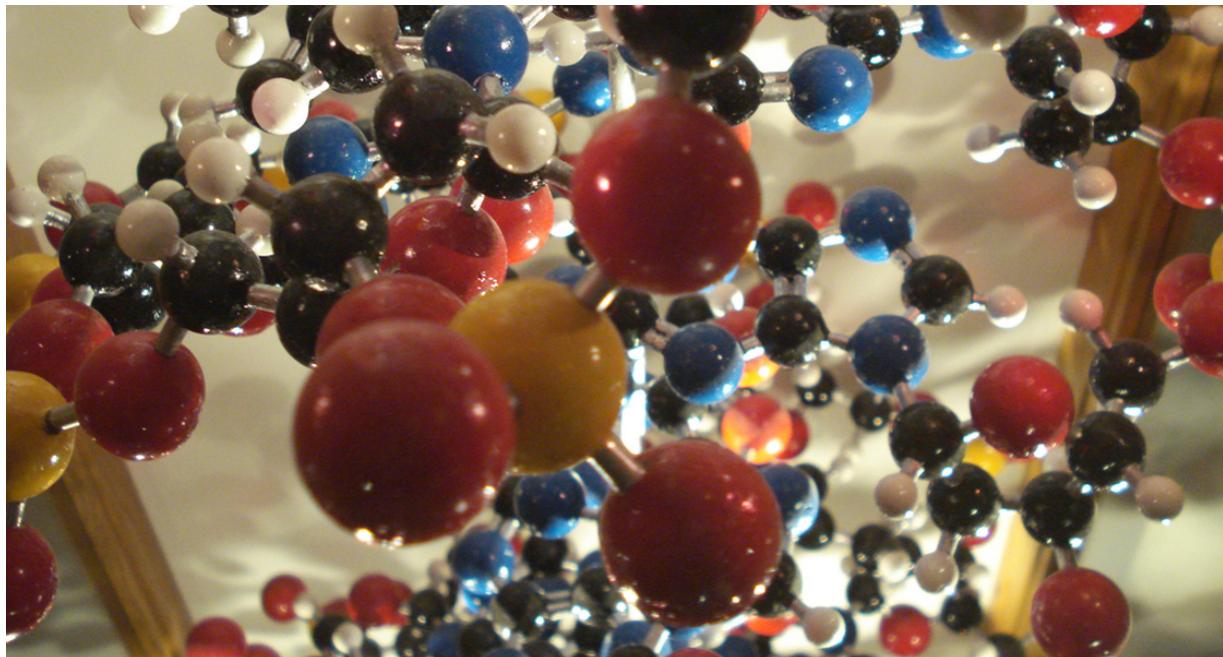
Introduction class="introduction"

Atoms are
the building
blocks of
molecules
found in the
universe—
air, soil,
water, rocks
. . . and also
the cells of
all living
organisms.

In this
model of an
organic
molecule,
the atoms of
carbon
(black),
hydrogen
(white),
nitrogen
(blue),
oxygen
(red), and
sulfur
(yellow) are
shown in
proportional
atomic size.

The silver
rods
indicate
chemical

bonds.
(credit:
modificatio
n of work
by Christian
Guthier)



Elements in various combinations comprise all matter, including living things. Some of the most abundant elements in living organisms include carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, sulfur, and phosphorus. These form the nucleic acids, proteins, carbohydrates, and lipids that are the fundamental components of living matter. Biologists must understand these important building blocks and the unique structures of the atoms that make up molecules, allowing for the formation of cells, tissues, organ systems, and entire organisms.

All biological processes follow the laws of physics and chemistry, so in order to understand how biological systems work, it is important to understand the underlying physics and chemistry. For example, the flow of blood within the circulatory system follows the laws of physics that regulate the modes of fluid flow. The breakdown of the large, complex molecules of

food into smaller molecules—and the conversion of these to release energy to be stored in adenosine triphosphate (ATP)—is a series of chemical reactions that follow chemical laws. The properties of water and the formation of hydrogen bonds are key to understanding living processes. Recognizing the properties of acids and bases is important, for example, to our understanding of the digestive process. Therefore, the fundamentals of physics and chemistry are important for gaining insight into biological processes.

Atoms, Isotopes, Ions, and Molecules: The Building Blocks

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Define matter and elements
- Describe the interrelationship between protons, neutrons, and electrons
- Compare the ways in which electrons can be donated or shared between atoms
- Explain the ways in which naturally occurring elements combine to create molecules, cells, tissues, organ systems, and organisms

At its most fundamental level, life is made up of matter. **Matter** is any substance that occupies space and has mass. **Elements** are unique forms of matter with specific chemical and physical properties that cannot be broken down into smaller substances by ordinary chemical reactions. There are 118 elements, but only 92 occur naturally. The remaining elements are synthesized in laboratories and are unstable.

Each element is designated by its chemical symbol, which is a single capital letter or, when the first letter is already “taken” by another element, a combination of two letters. Some elements follow the English term for the element, such as C for carbon and Ca for calcium. Other elements’ chemical symbols derive from their Latin names; for example, the symbol for sodium is Na, referring to *natrium*, the Latin word for sodium.

The four elements common to all living organisms are oxygen (O), carbon (C), hydrogen (H), and nitrogen (N). In the non-living world, elements are found in different proportions, and some elements common to living organisms are relatively rare on the earth as a whole, as shown in [\[link\]](#). For example, the atmosphere is rich in nitrogen and oxygen but contains little carbon and hydrogen, while the earth’s crust, although it contains oxygen and a small amount of hydrogen, has little nitrogen and carbon. In spite of their differences in abundance, all elements and the chemical reactions between them obey the same chemical and physical laws regardless of whether they are a part of the living or non-living world.

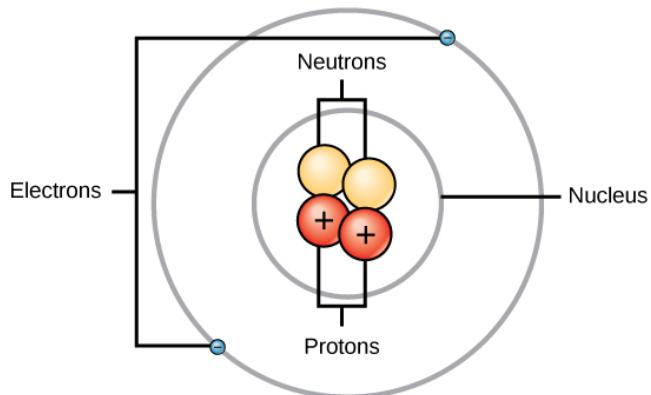
Approximate Percentage of Elements in Living Organisms (Humans) Compared to the Non-living World

Element	Life (Humans)	Atmosphere	Earth's Crust
Oxygen (O)	65%	21%	46%
Carbon (C)	18%	trace	trace
Hydrogen (H)	10%	trace	0.1%
Nitrogen (N)	3%	78%	trace

The Structure of the Atom

To understand how elements come together, we must first discuss the smallest component or building block of an element, the atom. An **atom** is the smallest unit of matter that retains all of the chemical properties of an element. For example, one gold atom has all of the properties of gold in that it is a solid metal at room temperature. A gold coin is simply a very large number of gold atoms molded into the shape of a coin and containing small amounts of other elements known as impurities. Gold atoms cannot be broken down into anything smaller while still retaining the properties of gold.

An atom is composed of two regions: the **nucleus**, which is in the center of the atom and contains protons and neutrons, and the outermost region of the atom which holds its electrons in orbit around the nucleus, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#). Atoms contain protons, electrons, and neutrons, among other subatomic particles. The only exception is hydrogen (H), which is made of one proton and one electron with no neutrons.



Elements, such as helium, depicted here, are made up of atoms. Atoms are made up of protons and neutrons located within the nucleus, with electrons in orbitals surrounding the nucleus.

Protons and neutrons have approximately the same mass, about 1.67×10^{-24} grams. Scientists arbitrarily define this amount of mass as one atomic mass unit (amu) or one Dalton, as shown in [\[link\]](#). Although similar in mass, protons and neutrons differ in their electric charge. A **proton** is positively charged whereas a **neutron** is uncharged. Therefore, the number of neutrons in an atom contributes significantly to its mass, but not to its charge. **Electrons** are much smaller in mass than protons, weighing only 9.11×10^{-28} grams, or about 1/1800 of an atomic mass unit. Hence, they do not contribute much to an element's overall atomic mass. Therefore, when considering atomic mass, it is customary to ignore the mass of any electrons and calculate the atom's mass based on the number of protons and neutrons alone. Although not significant contributors to mass, electrons do contribute greatly to the atom's charge, as each electron has a negative charge equal to the positive charge of a proton. In uncharged, neutral atoms, the number of electrons orbiting the nucleus is equal to the number of protons inside the nucleus. In these atoms, the positive and negative charges cancel each other out, leading to an atom with no net charge.

Accounting for the sizes of protons, neutrons, and electrons, most of the volume of an atom—greater than 99 percent—is, in fact, empty space. With all this empty space, one might ask why so-called solid objects do not just pass through one another. The reason they do not is that the electrons that surround all atoms are negatively charged and negative charges repel each other.

Protons, Neutrons, and Electrons

	Charge	Mass (amu)	Location
Proton	+1	1	nucleus
Neutron	0	1	nucleus
Electron	-1	0	orbitals

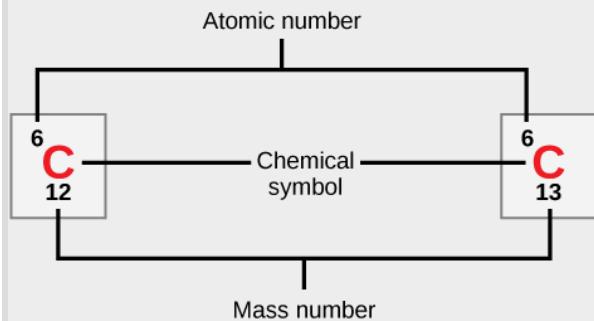
Atomic Number and Mass

Atoms of each element contain a characteristic number of protons and electrons. The number of protons determines an element's **atomic number** and is used to distinguish one element from another. The number of neutrons is variable, resulting in isotopes, which are different forms of the same atom that vary only in the number of neutrons they possess. Together, the number of protons and the number of neutrons determine an element's **mass number**, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#). Note that the small contribution of mass from electrons is disregarded in calculating the mass number. This approximation of mass can be used to easily calculate how many neutrons an element has by simply subtracting the number of protons from the mass number. Since an element's isotopes will have slightly different mass numbers, scientists also determine the **atomic mass**, which is the calculated

mean of the mass number for its naturally occurring isotopes. Often, the resulting number contains a fraction. For example, the atomic mass of chlorine (Cl) is 35.45 because chlorine is composed of several isotopes, some (the majority) with atomic mass 35 (17 protons and 18 neutrons) and some with atomic mass 37 (17 protons and 20 neutrons).

Note:

Art Connection



Carbon has an atomic number of six, and two stable isotopes with mass numbers of twelve and thirteen, respectively. Its relative atomic mass is 12.011

How many neutrons do carbon-12 and carbon-13 have, respectively?

Isotopes

Isotopes are different forms of an element that have the same number of protons but a different number of neutrons. Some elements—such as carbon, potassium, and uranium—have naturally occurring isotopes.

Carbon-12 contains six protons, six neutrons, and six electrons; therefore, it has a mass number of 12 (six protons and six neutrons). Carbon-14 contains six protons, eight neutrons, and six electrons; its atomic mass is 14 (six

protons and eight neutrons). These two alternate forms of carbon are isotopes. Some isotopes may emit neutrons, protons, and electrons, and attain a more stable atomic configuration (lower level of potential energy); these are radioactive isotopes, or **radioisotopes**. Radioactive decay (carbon-14 losing neutrons to eventually become carbon-12) describes the energy loss that occurs when an unstable atom's nucleus releases radiation.

Note:

Evolution Connection

Carbon Dating

Carbon is normally present in the atmosphere in the form of gaseous compounds like carbon dioxide and methane. Carbon-14 (^{14}C) is a naturally occurring radioisotope that is created in the atmosphere from atmospheric ^{14}N (nitrogen) by the addition of a neutron and the loss of a proton because of cosmic rays. This is a continuous process, so more ^{14}C is always being created. As a living organism incorporates ^{14}C initially as carbon dioxide fixed in the process of photosynthesis, the relative amount of ^{14}C in its body is equal to the concentration of ^{14}C in the atmosphere. When an organism dies, it is no longer ingesting ^{14}C , so the ratio between ^{14}C and ^{12}C will decline as ^{14}C decays gradually to ^{14}N by a process called beta decay—the emission of electrons or positrons. This decay gives off energy in a slow process.

After approximately 5,730 years, half of the starting concentration of ^{14}C will have been converted back to ^{14}N . The time it takes for half of the original concentration of an isotope to decay back to its more stable form is called its half-life. Because the half-life of ^{14}C is long, it is used to date formerly living objects such as old bones or wood. Comparing the ratio of the ^{14}C concentration found in an object to the amount of ^{14}C detected in the atmosphere, the amount of the isotope that has not yet decayed can be determined. On the basis of this amount, the age of the material, such as the pygmy mammoth shown in [\[link\]](#), can be calculated with accuracy if it is not much older than about 50,000 years. Other elements have isotopes with different half lives. For example, ^{40}K (potassium-40) has a half-life of 1.25 billion years, and ^{235}U (Uranium 235) has a half-life of about 700 million years. Through the use of radiometric dating, scientists can study

the age of fossils or other remains of extinct organisms to understand how organisms have evolved from earlier species.



The age of carbon-containing remains less than about 50,000 years old, such as this pygmy mammoth, can be determined using carbon dating. (credit: Bill Faulkner, NPS)

Note:

Link to Learning



To learn more about atoms, isotopes, and how to tell one isotope from another, visit [this site](#) and run the simulation.

The Periodic Table

The different elements are organized and displayed in the **periodic table**. Devised by Russian chemist Dmitri Mendeleev (1834–1907) in 1869, the table groups elements that, although unique, share certain chemical properties with other elements. The properties of elements are responsible for their physical state at room temperature: they may be gases, solids, or liquids. Elements also have specific **chemical reactivity**, the ability to combine and to chemically bond with each other.

In the periodic table, shown in [\[link\]](#), the elements are organized and displayed according to their atomic number and are arranged in a series of rows and columns based on shared chemical and physical properties. In addition to providing the atomic number for each element, the periodic table also displays the element's atomic mass. Looking at carbon, for example, its symbol (C) and name appear, as well as its atomic number of six (in the upper left-hand corner) and its atomic mass of 12.11.

Periodic Table of the Elements																																																																							
Group 1		Group 2																																																																					
1	H 1.01 Hydrogen	2	Be 9.01 Beryllium	3	Li 6.94 Lithium	4	Mg 24.31 Magnesium	5	Sc 40.08 Scandium	6	Ti 47.87 Titanium	7	V 50.94 Vanadium	8	Cr 51.99 Chromium	9	Mn 54.94 Manganese	10	Fe 55.85 Iron	11	Co 58.93 Cobalt	12	Ni 58.69 Nickel	13	Cu 63.55 Copper	14	Zn 65.41 Zinc	15	Ga 69.72 Gallium	16	Ge 72.64 Germanium	17	As 74.92 Arsenic	18	Se 78.96 Selenium	19	K 39.09 Potassium	20	Ca 40.08 Calcium	21	Sc 44.96 Scandium	22	Ti 47.87 Titanium	23	V 50.94 Vanadium	24	Cr 51.99 Chromium	25	Mn 54.94 Manganese	26	Fe 55.85 Iron	27	Co 58.93 Cobalt	28	Ni 58.69 Nickel	29	Cu 63.55 Copper	30	Zn 65.41 Zinc	31	Ga 69.72 Gallium	32	Ge 72.64 Germanium	33	As 74.92 Arsenic	34	Se 78.96 Selenium	35	Br 79.90 Bromine	36	Kr 83.80 Krypton
4	K 39.09 Potassium	5	Ca 40.08 Calcium	6	Sc 44.96 Scandium	7	Ti 47.87 Titanium	8	V 50.94 Vanadium	9	Cr 51.99 Chromium	10	Mn 54.94 Manganese	11	Fe 55.85 Iron	12	Co 58.93 Cobalt	13	Ni 58.69 Nickel	14	Cu 63.55 Copper	15	Zn 65.41 Zinc	16	Ga 69.72 Gallium	17	Ge 72.64 Germanium	18	As 74.92 Arsenic	19	Se 78.96 Selenium	20	Br 79.90 Bromine	21	Kr 83.80 Krypton																																				
5	Rb 85.47 Rubidium	6	Sr 87.62 Strontium	7	Y 88.91 Yttrium	8	Zr 91.22 Zirconium	9	Nb 92.91 Niobium	10	Mo 95.94 Molybdenum	11	Tc [98] Technetium	12	Ru 101.1 Ruthenium	13	Rh 102.9 Rhodium	14	Pd 106.4 Palladium	15	Ag 107.9 Silver	16	Cd 112.4 Cadmium	17	In 114.8 Indium	18	Sn 118.7 Antimony	19	Sb 121.8 Bismuth	20	Te 127.6 Tellurium	21	I 126.9 Iodine	22	Xe 131.3 Xenon																																				
6	Cs 132.9 Cesium	7	Ba 137.3 Barium	8	La 138.9 Lanthanum	9	Hf 178.5 Hafnium	10	Ta 180.9 Tantalum	11	W 183.8 Tungsten	12	Re 186.2 Rhenium	13	Os 190.2 Osmium	14	Ir 192.2 Iridium	15	Pt 195.1 Platinum	16	Au 196.9 Gold	17	Hg 200.6 Mercury	18	Tl 204.4 Thallium	19	Pb 207.2 Lead	20	Bi 208.9 Bismuth	21	Po [209] Polonium	22	Rn [210] Radon																																						
7	Fr [223] Francium	8	Ra [226] Radium	9	Ac [227] Actinium	10	Rf [261] Rutherfordium	11	Db [262] Dubnium	12	Sg [266] Seaborgium	13	Bh [264] Bohrium	14	Hs [277] Hassium	15	Mt [268] Meitnerium	16	Ds [269] Darmstadtium	17	Rg [272] Roentgenium	18	Cn [285] Copernicus	19	Uut [284] Ununtrium	20	Fl [289] Flerovium	21	Up [288] Ununpentium	22	Lv [293] Livermorium	23	Uus [294] Ununoctium	24	Uuo [294] Ununseptium																																				
*	La 138.9 Lanthanum	58	Ce 140.1 Curium	59	Pr 140.9 Praseodymium	60	Nd 144.2 Neodymium	61	Pm [145] Promethium	62	Sm 150.4 Samarium	63	Eu 151.9 Europium	64	Tb 157.3 Terbium	65	Dy 162.5 Dysprosium	66	Ho 164.9 Holmium	67	Er 167.3 Erbium	68	Tm 168.9 Thulium	69	Yb 173.1 Ytterbium	70	Lu 174.9 Lutetium	71	Lu 174.9 Lutetium																																										
**	Ac [227] Actinium	90	Th 232.0 Thorium	91	Pa 231.0 Protactinium	92	U 238.0 Uranium	93	Np [237] Neptunium	94	Pu [244] Plutonium	95	Am [243] Americium	96	Cm [247] Curium	97	Bk [247] Berkelium	98	Cf [251] Californium	99	Es [252] Einsteinium	100	Fm [257] Fermium	101	Md [258] Mendelevium	102	No [259] Nobelium	103	Lr [262] Lawrencium																																										
<p>Atomic Number → 1</p> <p>Symbol → H</p> <p>Relative Atomic Mass → 1.01</p> <p>Name → Hydrogen</p>																																																																							
Color Code																																																																							
Other non-metals	Noble gases																																																																						
Alkali metals	Lanthanides																																																																						
Transition metals	Actinides																																																																						
Other metals	Unknown chemical properties																																																																						
Alkaline earth metals	Halogens																																																																						

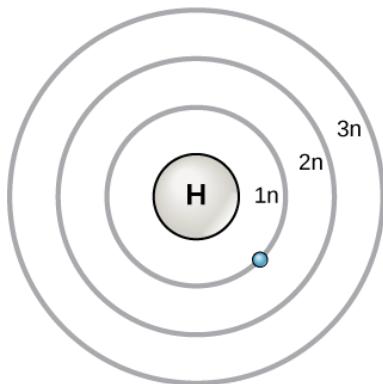
The periodic table shows the atomic mass and atomic number of each element. The atomic number appears above the symbol for the element and the approximate atomic mass appears below it.

The periodic table groups elements according to chemical properties. The differences in chemical reactivity between the elements are based on the number and spatial distribution of an atom's electrons. Atoms that chemically react and bond to each other form molecules. **Molecules** are simply two or more atoms chemically bonded together. Logically, when two atoms chemically bond to form a molecule, their electrons, which form the outermost region of each atom, come together first as the atoms form a chemical bond.

Electron Shells and the Bohr Model

It should be stressed that there is a connection between the number of protons in an element, the atomic number that distinguishes one element from another, and the number of electrons it has. In all electrically neutral atoms, the number of electrons is the same as the number of protons. Thus, each element, at least when electrically neutral, has a characteristic number of electrons equal to its atomic number.

An early model of the atom was developed in 1913 by Danish scientist Niels Bohr (1885–1962). The Bohr model shows the atom as a central nucleus containing protons and neutrons, with the electrons in circular **orbitals** at specific distances from the nucleus, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#). These orbits form electron shells or energy levels, which are a way of visualizing the number of electrons in the outermost shells. These energy levels are designated by a number and the symbol “n.” For example, 1n represents the first energy level located closest to the nucleus.



The Bohr model was developed by Niels Bohr in 1913. In this model, electrons exist within principal shells. An electron normally exists

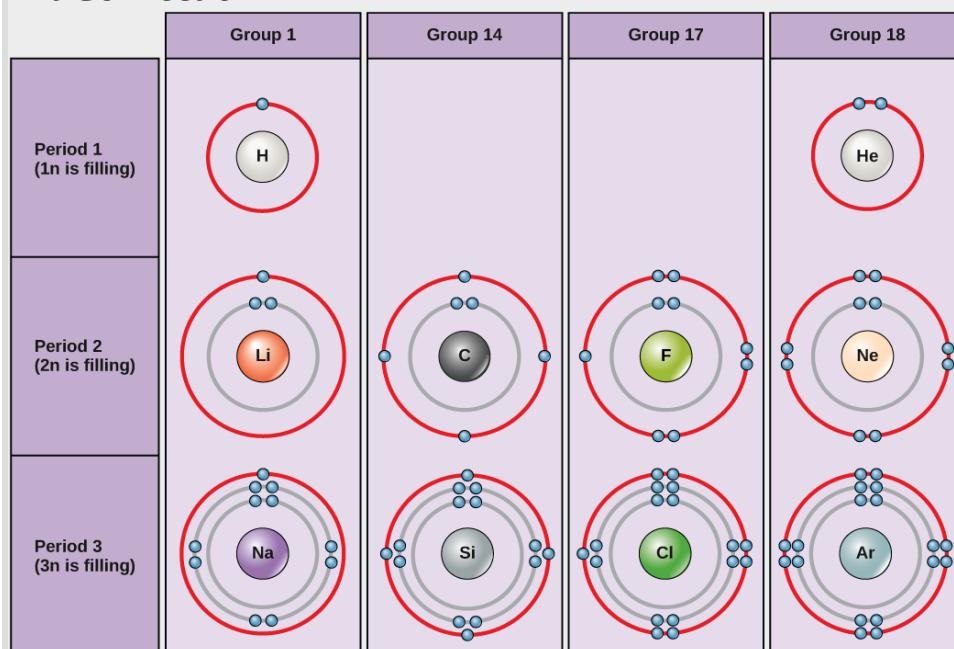
in the lowest energy shell available, which is the one closest to the nucleus. Energy from a photon of light can bump it up to a higher energy shell, but this situation is unstable, and the electron quickly decays back to the ground state. In the process, a photon of light is released.

Electrons fill orbitals in a consistent order: they first fill the orbitals closest to the nucleus, then they continue to fill orbitals of increasing energy further from the nucleus. If there are multiple orbitals of equal energy, they will be filled with one electron in each energy level before a second electron is added. The electrons of the outermost energy level determine the energetic stability of the atom and its tendency to form chemical bonds with other atoms to form molecules.

Under standard conditions, atoms fill the inner shells first, often resulting in a variable number of electrons in the outermost shell. The innermost shell has a maximum of two electrons but the next two electron shells can each have a maximum of eight electrons. This is known as the **octet rule**, which states, with the exception of the innermost shell, that atoms are more stable energetically when they have eight electrons in their **valence shell**, the outermost electron shell. Examples of some neutral atoms and their electron configurations are shown in [\[link\]](#). Notice that in this [\[link\]](#), helium has a complete outer electron shell, with two electrons filling its first and only shell. Similarly, neon has a complete outer $2n$ shell containing eight electrons. In contrast, chlorine and sodium have seven and one in their outer shells, respectively, but theoretically they would be more energetically stable if they followed the octet rule and had eight.

Note:

Art Connection



Bohr diagrams indicate how many electrons fill each principal shell. Group 18 elements (helium, neon, and argon are shown) have a full outer, or valence, shell. A full valence shell is the most stable electron configuration. Elements in other groups have partially filled valence shells and gain or lose electrons to achieve a stable electron configuration.

An atom may give, take, or share electrons with another atom to achieve a full valence shell, the most stable electron configuration. Looking at this figure, how many electrons do elements in group 1 need to lose in order to achieve a stable electron configuration? How many electrons do elements in groups 14 and 17 need to gain to achieve a stable configuration?

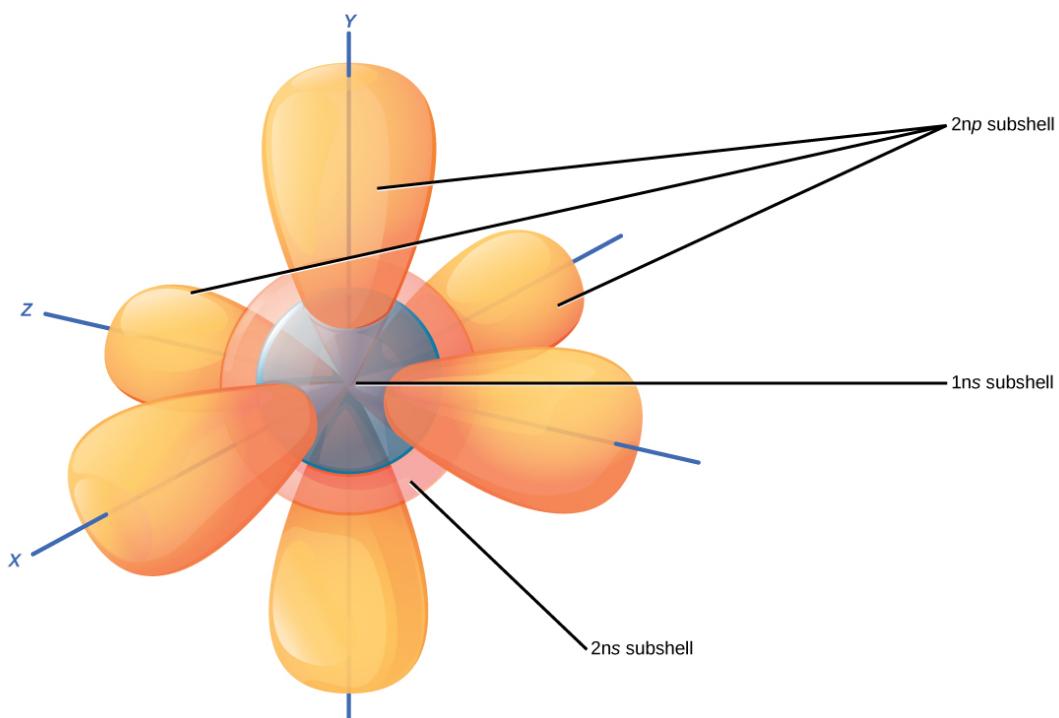
Understanding that the organization of the periodic table is based on the total number of protons (and electrons) helps us know how electrons are distributed among the outer shell. The periodic table is arranged in columns

and rows based on the number of electrons and where these electrons are located. Take a closer look at the some of the elements in the table's far right column in [\[link\]](#). The group 18 atoms helium (He), neon (Ne), and argon (Ar) all have filled outer electron shells, making it unnecessary for them to share electrons with other atoms to attain stability; they are highly stable as single atoms. Their non-reactivity has resulted in their being named the **inert gases** (or **noble gases**). Compare this to the group 1 elements in the left-hand column. These elements, including hydrogen (H), lithium (Li), and sodium (Na), all have one electron in their outermost shells. That means that they can achieve a stable configuration and a filled outer shell by donating or sharing one electron with another atom or a molecule such as water. Hydrogen will donate or share its electron to achieve this configuration, while lithium and sodium will donate their electron to become stable. As a result of losing a negatively charged electron, they become positively charged **ions**. Group 17 elements, including fluorine and chlorine, have seven electrons in their outmost shells, so they tend to fill this shell with an electron from other atoms or molecules, making them negatively charged ions. Group 14 elements, of which carbon is the most important to living systems, have four electrons in their outer shell allowing them to make several covalent bonds (discussed below) with other atoms. Thus, the columns of the periodic table represent the potential shared state of these elements' outer electron shells that is responsible for their similar chemical characteristics.

Electron Orbitals

Although useful to explain the reactivity and chemical bonding of certain elements, the Bohr model of the atom does not accurately reflect how electrons are spatially distributed surrounding the nucleus. They do not circle the nucleus like the earth orbits the sun, but are found in **electron orbitals**. These relatively complex shapes result from the fact that electrons behave not just like particles, but also like waves. Mathematical equations from quantum mechanics known as wave functions can predict within a certain level of probability where an electron might be at any given time. The area where an electron is most likely to be found is called its orbital.

Recall that the Bohr model depicts an atom's electron shell configuration. Within each electron shell are subshells, and each subshell has a specified number of orbitals containing electrons. While it is impossible to calculate exactly where an electron is located, scientists know that it is most probably located within its orbital path. Subshells are designated by the letter s, p, d, and f. The s subshell is spherical in shape and has one orbital. Principal shell 1n has only a single s orbital, which can hold two electrons. Principal shell 2n has one s and one p subshell, and can hold a total of eight electrons. The p subshell has three dumbbell-shaped orbitals, as illustrated in [[link](#)]. Subshells d and f have more complex shapes and contain five and seven orbitals, respectively. These are not shown in the illustration. Principal shell 3n has s, p, and d subshells and can hold 18 electrons. Principal shell 4n has s, p, d and f orbitals and can hold 32 electrons. Moving away from the nucleus, the number of electrons and orbitals found in the energy levels increases. Progressing from one atom to the next in the periodic table, the electron structure can be worked out by fitting an extra electron into the next available orbital.



The s subshells are shaped like spheres. Both the 1n and 2n

principal shells have an *s* orbital, but the size of the sphere is larger in the $2n$ orbital. Each sphere is a single orbital. *p* subshells are made up of three dumbbell-shaped orbitals. Principal shell $2n$ has a *p* subshell, but shell 1 does not.

The closest orbital to the nucleus, called the $1s$ orbital, can hold up to two electrons. This orbital is equivalent to the innermost electron shell of the Bohr model of the atom. It is called the $1s$ orbital because it is spherical around the nucleus. The $1s$ orbital is the closest orbital to the nucleus, and it is always filled first, before any other orbital can be filled. Hydrogen has one electron; therefore, it has only one spot within the $1s$ orbital occupied. This is designated as $1s^1$, where the superscripted 1 refers to the one electron within the $1s$ orbital. Helium has two electrons; therefore, it can completely fill the $1s$ orbital with its two electrons. This is designated as $1s^2$, referring to the two electrons of helium in the $1s$ orbital. On the periodic table [link], hydrogen and helium are the only two elements in the first row (period); this is because they only have electrons in their first shell, the $1s$ orbital. Hydrogen and helium are the only two elements that have the $1s$ and no other electron orbitals in the electrically neutral state.

The second electron shell may contain eight electrons. This shell contains another spherical *s* orbital and three “dumbbell” shaped *p* orbitals, each of which can hold two electrons, as shown in [link]. After the $1s$ orbital is filled, the second electron shell is filled, first filling its $2s$ orbital and then its three *p* orbitals. When filling the *p* orbitals, each takes a single electron; once each *p* orbital has an electron, a second may be added. Lithium (Li) contains three electrons that occupy the first and second shells. Two electrons fill the $1s$ orbital, and the third electron then fills the $2s$ orbital. Its **electron configuration** is $1s^22s^1$. Neon (Ne), on the other hand, has a total of ten electrons: two are in its innermost $1s$ orbital and eight fill its second shell (two each in the $2s$ and three *p* orbitals); thus, it is an inert gas and energetically stable as a single atom that will rarely form a chemical bond with other atoms. Larger elements have additional orbitals, making up the third electron shell. While the concepts of electron shells and orbitals are closely related, orbitals provide a more accurate depiction of the electron

configuration of an atom because the orbital model specifies the different shapes and special orientations of all the places that electrons may occupy.

Note:

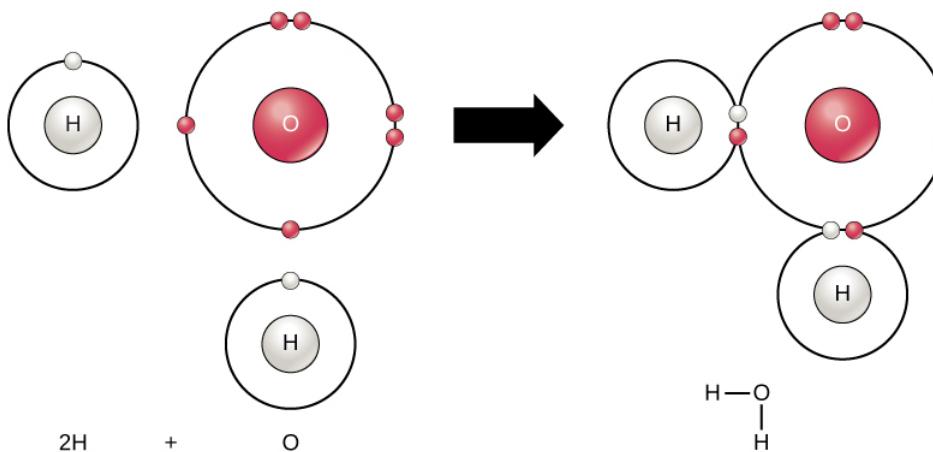
Link to Learning



Watch [this visual animation](#) to see the spatial arrangement of the *p* and *s* orbitals.

Chemical Reactions and Molecules

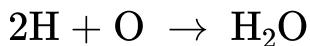
All elements are most stable when their outermost shell is filled with electrons according to the octet rule. This is because it is energetically favorable for atoms to be in that configuration and it makes them stable. However, since not all elements have enough electrons to fill their outermost shells, atoms form **chemical bonds** with other atoms thereby obtaining the electrons they need to attain a stable electron configuration. When two or more atoms chemically bond with each other, the resultant chemical structure is a molecule. The familiar water molecule, H₂O, consists of two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom; these bond together to form water, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#). Atoms can form molecules by donating, accepting, or sharing electrons to fill their outer shells.



Two or more atoms may bond with each other to form a molecule. When two hydrogens and an oxygen share electrons via covalent bonds, a water molecule is formed.

Chemical reactions occur when two or more atoms bond together to form molecules or when bonded atoms are broken apart. The substances used in the beginning of a chemical reaction are called the **reactants** (usually found on the left side of a chemical equation), and the substances found at the end of the reaction are known as the **products** (usually found on the right side of a chemical equation). An arrow is typically drawn between the reactants and products to indicate the direction of the chemical reaction; this direction is not always a “one-way street.” For the creation of the water molecule shown above, the chemical equation would be:

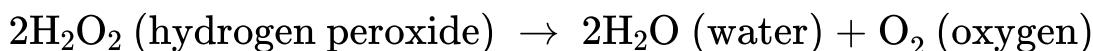
Equation:



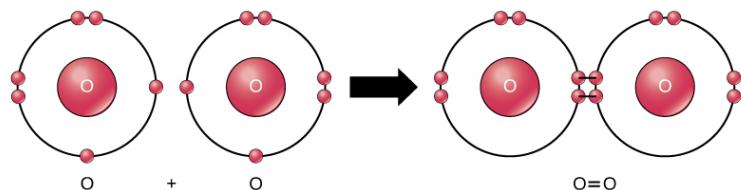
An example of a simple chemical reaction is the breaking down of hydrogen peroxide molecules, each of which consists of two hydrogen atoms bonded to two oxygen atoms (H_2O_2). The reactant hydrogen peroxide is broken down into water, containing one oxygen atom bound to two hydrogen atoms (H_2O), and oxygen, which consists of two bonded oxygen atoms (O_2). In the equation below, the reaction includes two

hydrogen peroxide molecules and two water molecules. This is an example of a **balanced chemical equation**, wherein the number of atoms of each element is the same on each side of the equation. According to the law of conservation of matter, the number of atoms before and after a chemical reaction should be equal, such that no atoms are, under normal circumstances, created or destroyed.

Equation:



Even though all of the reactants and products of this reaction are molecules (each atom remains bonded to at least one other atom), in this reaction only hydrogen peroxide and water are representatives of **compounds**: they contain atoms of more than one type of element. Molecular oxygen, on the other hand, as shown in [link], consists of two doubly bonded oxygen atoms and is not classified as a compound but as a mononuclear molecule.



The oxygen atoms in an O_2 molecule are joined by a double bond.

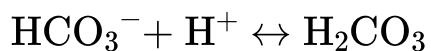
Some chemical reactions, such as the one shown above, can proceed in one direction until the reactants are all used up. The equations that describe these reactions contain a unidirectional arrow and are **irreversible**.

Reversible reactions are those that can go in either direction. In reversible reactions, reactants are turned into products, but when the concentration of product goes beyond a certain threshold (characteristic of the particular reaction), some of these products will be converted back into reactants; at this point, the designations of products and reactants are reversed. This back

and forth continues until a certain relative balance between reactants and products occurs—a state called **equilibrium**. These situations of reversible reactions are often denoted by a chemical equation with a double headed arrow pointing towards both the reactants and products.

For example, in human blood, excess hydrogen ions (H^+) bind to bicarbonate ions (HCO_3^-) forming an equilibrium state with carbonic acid (H_2CO_3). If carbonic acid were added to this system, some of it would be converted to bicarbonate and hydrogen ions.

Equation:



In biological reactions, however, equilibrium is rarely obtained because the concentrations of the reactants or products or both are constantly changing, often with a product of one reaction being a reactant for another. To return to the example of excess hydrogen ions in the blood, the formation of carbonic acid will be the major direction of the reaction. However, the carbonic acid can also leave the body as carbon dioxide gas (via exhalation) instead of being converted back to bicarbonate ion, thus driving the reaction to the right by the chemical law known as **law of mass action**. These reactions are important for maintaining the homeostasis of our blood.

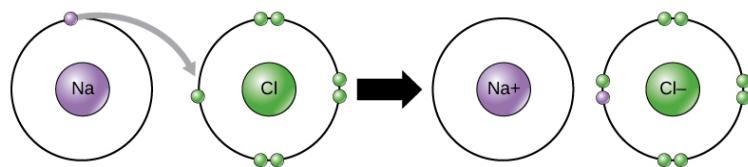
Equation:



Ions and Ionic Bonds

Some atoms are more stable when they gain or lose an electron (or possibly two) and form ions. This fills their outermost electron shell and makes them energetically more stable. Because the number of electrons does not equal the number of protons, each ion has a net charge. **Cations** are positive ions that are formed by losing electrons. Negative ions are formed by gaining electrons and are called anions. **Anions** are designated by their elemental name being altered to end in “-ide”: the anion of chlorine is called chloride, and the anion of sulfur is called sulfide, for example.

This movement of electrons from one element to another is referred to as **electron transfer**. As [link] illustrates, sodium (Na) only has one electron in its outer electron shell. It takes less energy for sodium to donate that one electron than it does to accept seven more electrons to fill the outer shell. If sodium loses an electron, it now has 11 protons, 11 neutrons, and only 10 electrons, leaving it with an overall charge of +1. It is now referred to as a sodium ion. Chlorine (Cl) in its lowest energy state (called the ground state) has seven electrons in its outer shell. Again, it is more energy-efficient for chlorine to gain one electron than to lose seven. Therefore, it tends to gain an electron to create an ion with 17 protons, 17 neutrons, and 18 electrons, giving it a net negative (-1) charge. It is now referred to as a chloride ion. In this example, sodium will donate its one electron to empty its shell, and chlorine will accept that electron to fill its shell. Both ions now satisfy the octet rule and have complete outermost shells. Because the number of electrons is no longer equal to the number of protons, each is now an ion and has a +1 (sodium cation) or -1 (chloride anion) charge. Note that these transactions can normally only take place simultaneously: in order for a sodium atom to lose an electron, it must be in the presence of a suitable recipient like a chlorine atom.



In the formation of an ionic compound, metals lose electrons and nonmetals gain electrons to achieve an octet.

Ionic bonds are formed between ions with opposite charges. For instance, positively charged sodium ions and negatively charged chloride ions bond together to make crystals of sodium chloride, or table salt, creating a crystalline molecule with zero net charge.

Certain salts are referred to in physiology as **electrolytes** (including sodium, potassium, and calcium), ions necessary for nerve impulse conduction, muscle contractions and water balance. Many sports drinks and dietary supplements provide these ions to replace those lost from the body via sweating during exercise.

Covalent Bonds and Other Bonds and Interactions

Another way the octet rule can be satisfied is by the sharing of electrons between atoms to form **covalent bonds**. These bonds are stronger and much more common than ionic bonds in the molecules of living organisms. Covalent bonds are commonly found in carbon-based organic molecules, such as our DNA and proteins. Covalent bonds are also found in inorganic molecules like H_2O , CO_2 , and O_2 . One, two, or three pairs of electrons may be shared, making single, double, and triple bonds, respectively. The more covalent bonds between two atoms, the stronger their connection. Thus, triple bonds are the strongest.

The strength of different levels of covalent bonding is one of the main reasons living organisms have a difficult time in acquiring nitrogen for use in constructing their molecules, even though molecular nitrogen, N_2 , is the most abundant gas in the atmosphere. Molecular nitrogen consists of two nitrogen atoms triple bonded to each other and, as with all molecules, the sharing of these three pairs of electrons between the two nitrogen atoms allows for the filling of their outer electron shells, making the molecule more stable than the individual nitrogen atoms. This strong triple bond makes it difficult for living systems to break apart this nitrogen in order to use it as constituents of proteins and DNA.

The formation of water molecules provides an example of covalent bonding. The hydrogen and oxygen atoms that combine to form water molecules are bound together by covalent bonds, as shown in [\[link\]](#). The electron from the hydrogen splits its time between the incomplete outer shell of the hydrogen atoms and the incomplete outer shell of the oxygen atoms. To completely fill the outer shell of oxygen, which has six electrons in its outer shell but which would be more stable with eight, two electrons (one from each hydrogen atom) are needed: hence the well-known formula

H_2O . The electrons are shared between the two elements to fill the outer shell of each, making both elements more stable.

Note:

Link to Learning



View this short video to see an animation of ionic and covalent bonding.
https://www.openstaxcollege.org/l/ionic_covalent

Polar Covalent Bonds

There are two types of covalent bonds: polar and nonpolar. In a **polar covalent bond**, shown in [link], the electrons are unequally shared by the atoms and are attracted more to one nucleus than the other. Because of the unequal distribution of electrons between the atoms of different elements, a slightly positive ($\delta+$) or slightly negative ($\delta-$) charge develops. This partial charge is an important property of water and accounts for many of its characteristics.

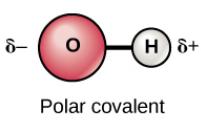
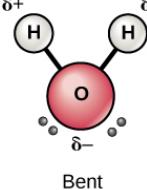
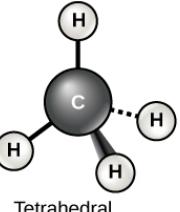
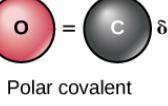
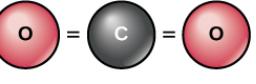
Water is a polar molecule, with the hydrogen atoms acquiring a partial positive charge and the oxygen a partial negative charge. This occurs because the nucleus of the oxygen atom is more attractive to the electrons of the hydrogen atoms than the hydrogen nucleus is to the oxygen's electrons. Thus oxygen has a higher **electronegativity** than hydrogen and the shared electrons spend more time in the vicinity of the oxygen nucleus than they do near the nucleus of the hydrogen atoms, giving the atoms of oxygen and hydrogen slightly negative and positive charges, respectively. Another way of stating this is that the probability of finding a shared

electron near an oxygen nucleus is more likely than finding it near a hydrogen nucleus. Either way, the atom's relative electronegativity contributes to the development of partial charges whenever one element is significantly more electronegative than the other, and the charges generated by these polar bonds may then be used for the formation of hydrogen bonds based on the attraction of opposite partial charges. (Hydrogen bonds, which are discussed in detail below, are weak bonds between slightly positively charged hydrogen atoms to slightly negatively charged atoms in other molecules.) Since macromolecules often have atoms within them that differ in electronegativity, polar bonds are often present in organic molecules.

Nonpolar Covalent Bonds

Nonpolar covalent bonds form between two atoms of the same element or between different elements that share electrons equally. For example, molecular oxygen (O_2) is nonpolar because the electrons will be equally distributed between the two oxygen atoms.

Another example of a nonpolar covalent bond is methane (CH_4), also shown in [\[link\]](#). Carbon has four electrons in its outermost shell and needs four more to fill it. It gets these four from four hydrogen atoms, each atom providing one, making a stable outer shell of eight electrons. Carbon and hydrogen do not have the same electronegativity but are similar; thus, nonpolar bonds form. The hydrogen atoms each need one electron for their outermost shell, which is filled when it contains two electrons. These elements share the electrons equally among the carbons and the hydrogen atoms, creating a nonpolar covalent molecule.

	Bond type	Molecular shape	Molecular type
Water	 Polar covalent	 Bent	Polar
Methane	 Nonpolar covalent	 Tetrahedral	Nonpolar
Carbon dioxide	 Polar covalent	 Linear	Nonpolar

Whether a molecule is polar or nonpolar depends both on bond type and molecular shape. Both water and carbon dioxide have polar covalent bonds, but carbon dioxide is linear, so the partial charges on the molecule cancel each other out.

Hydrogen Bonds and Van Der Waals Interactions

Ionic and covalent bonds between elements require energy to break. Ionic bonds are not as strong as covalent, which determines their behavior in biological systems. However, not all bonds are ionic or covalent bonds. Weaker bonds can also form between molecules. Two weak bonds that occur frequently are hydrogen bonds and van der Waals interactions. Without these two types of bonds, life as we know it would not exist. Hydrogen bonds provide many of the critical, life-sustaining properties of

water and also stabilize the structures of proteins and DNA, the building block of cells.

When polar covalent bonds containing hydrogen form, the hydrogen in that bond has a slightly positive charge because hydrogen's electron is pulled more strongly toward the other element and away from the hydrogen.

Because the hydrogen is slightly positive, it will be attracted to neighboring negative charges. When this happens, a weak interaction occurs between the δ^+ of the hydrogen from one molecule and the δ^- charge on the more electronegative atoms of another molecule, usually oxygen or nitrogen, or within the same molecule. This interaction is called a **hydrogen bond**. This type of bond is common and occurs regularly between water molecules. Individual hydrogen bonds are weak and easily broken; however, they occur in very large numbers in water and in organic polymers, creating a major force in combination. Hydrogen bonds are also responsible for zipping together the DNA double helix.

Like hydrogen bonds, **van der Waals interactions** are weak attractions or interactions between molecules. Van der Waals attractions can occur between any two or more molecules and are dependent on slight fluctuations of the electron densities, which are not always symmetrical around an atom. For these attractions to happen, the molecules need to be very close to one another. These bonds—along with ionic, covalent, and hydrogen bonds—contribute to the three-dimensional structure of the proteins in our cells that is necessary for their proper function.

Note:

Career Connection

Pharmaceutical Chemist

Pharmaceutical chemists are responsible for the development of new drugs and trying to determine the mode of action of both old and new drugs. They are involved in every step of the drug development process. Drugs can be found in the natural environment or can be synthesized in the laboratory. In many cases, potential drugs found in nature are changed chemically in the laboratory to make them safer and more effective, and

sometimes synthetic versions of drugs substitute for the version found in nature.

After the initial discovery or synthesis of a drug, the chemist then develops the drug, perhaps chemically altering it, testing it to see if the drug is toxic, and then designing methods for efficient large-scale production. Then, the process of getting the drug approved for human use begins. In the United States, drug approval is handled by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and involves a series of large-scale experiments using human subjects to make sure the drug is not harmful and effectively treats the condition it aims to treat. This process often takes several years and requires the participation of physicians and scientists, in addition to chemists, to complete testing and gain approval.

An example of a drug that was originally discovered in a living organism is Paclitaxel (Taxol), an anti-cancer drug used to treat breast cancer. This drug was discovered in the bark of the pacific yew tree. Another example is aspirin, originally isolated from willow tree bark. Finding drugs often means testing hundreds of samples of plants, fungi, and other forms of life to see if any biologically active compounds are found within them.

Sometimes, traditional medicine can give modern medicine clues to where an active compound can be found. For example, the use of willow bark to make medicine has been known for thousands of years, dating back to ancient Egypt. It was not until the late 1800s, however, that the aspirin molecule, known as acetylsalicylic acid, was purified and marketed for human use.

Occasionally, drugs developed for one use are found to have unforeseen effects that allow these drugs to be used in other, unrelated ways. For example, the drug minoxidil (Rogaine) was originally developed to treat high blood pressure. When tested on humans, it was noticed that individuals taking the drug would grow new hair. Eventually the drug was marketed to men and women with baldness to restore lost hair.

The career of the pharmaceutical chemist may involve detective work, experimentation, and drug development, all with the goal of making human beings healthier.

Section Summary

Matter is anything that occupies space and has mass. It is made up of elements. All of the 92 elements that occur naturally have unique qualities that allow them to combine in various ways to create molecules, which in turn combine to form cells, tissues, organ systems, and organisms. Atoms, which consist of protons, neutrons, and electrons, are the smallest units of an element that retain all of the properties of that element. Electrons can be transferred, shared, or cause charge disparities between atoms to create bonds, including ionic, covalent, and hydrogen bonds, as well as van der Waals interactions.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem:

[\[link\]](#) How many neutrons do carbon-12 and carbon-13 have, respectively?

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) Carbon-12 has six neutrons. Carbon-13 has seven neutrons.

Exercise:

Problem:

[\[link\]](#) An atom may give, take, or share electrons with another atom to achieve a full valence shell, the most stable electron configuration. Looking at this figure, how many electrons do elements in group 1 need to lose in order to achieve a stable electron configuration? How many electrons do elements in groups 14 and 17 need to gain to achieve a stable configuration?

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) Elements in group 1 need to lose one electron to achieve a stable electron configuration. Elements in groups 14 and 17 need to gain four and one electrons, respectively, to achieve a stable configuration.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem:

If xenon has an atomic number of 54 and a mass number of 108, how many neutrons does it have?

- a. 54
- b. 27
- c. 100
- d. 108

Solution:

A

Exercise:

Problem:

Atoms that vary in the number of neutrons found in their nuclei are called _____.

- a. ions
- b. neutrons
- c. neutral atoms
- d. isotopes

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

Potassium has an atomic number of 19. What is its electron configuration?

- a. shells 1 and 2 are full, and shell 3 has nine electrons
- b. shells 1, 2 and 3 are full and shell 4 has three electrons
- c. shells 1, 2 and 3 are full and shell 4 has one electron
- d. shells 1, 2 and 3 are full and no other electrons are present

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem: Which type of bond represents a weak chemical bond?

- a. hydrogen bond
- b. atomic bond
- c. covalent bond
- d. nonpolar covalent bond

Solution:

A

Free Response**Exercise:**

Problem: What makes ionic bonds different from covalent bonds?

Solution:

Ionic bonds are created between ions. The electrons are not shared between the atoms, but rather are associated more with one ion than the other. Ionic bonds are strong bonds, but are weaker than covalent bonds, meaning it takes less energy to break an ionic bond compared with a covalent one.

Exercise:

Problem:

Why are hydrogen bonds and van der Waals interactions necessary for cells?

Solution:

Hydrogen bonds and van der Waals interactions form weak associations between different molecules or within different regions of the same molecule. They provide the structure and shape necessary for proteins and DNA within cells so that they function properly.

Glossary

anion

negative ion that is formed by an atom gaining one or more electrons

atom

the smallest unit of matter that retains all of the chemical properties of an element

atomic mass

calculated mean of the mass number for an element's isotopes

atomic number

total number of protons in an atom

balanced chemical equation

statement of a chemical reaction with the number of each type of atom equalized for both the products and reactants

cation

positive ion that is formed by an atom losing one or more electrons

chemical bond

interaction between two or more of the same or different atoms that results in the formation of molecules

chemical reaction

process leading to the rearrangement of atoms in molecules

chemical reactivity

the ability to combine and to chemically bond with each other

compound

substance composed of molecules consisting of atoms of at least two different elements

covalent bond

type of strong bond formed between two of the same or different elements; forms when electrons are shared between atoms

electrolyte

ion necessary for nerve impulse conduction, muscle contractions and water balance

electron

negatively charged subatomic particle that resides outside of the nucleus in the electron orbital; lacks functional mass and has a negative charge of -1 unit

electron configuration

arrangement of electrons in an atom's electron shell (for example, $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$)

electron orbital

how electrons are spatially distributed surrounding the nucleus; the area where an electron is most likely to be found

electron transfer

movement of electrons from one element to another; important in creation of ionic bonds

electronegativity

ability of some elements to attract electrons (often of hydrogen atoms), acquiring partial negative charges in molecules and creating partial positive charges on the hydrogen atoms

element

one of 118 unique substances that cannot be broken down into smaller substances; each element has unique properties and a specified number of protons

equilibrium

steady state of relative reactant and product concentration in reversible chemical reactions in a closed system

hydrogen bond

weak bond between slightly positively charged hydrogen atoms to slightly negatively charged atoms in other molecules

inert gas

(also, noble gas) element with filled outer electron shell that is unreactive with other atoms

ion

atom or chemical group that does not contain equal numbers of protons and electrons

ionic bond

chemical bond that forms between ions with opposite charges (cations and anions)

irreversible chemical reaction

chemical reaction where reactants proceed uni-directionally to form products

isotope

one or more forms of an element that have different numbers of neutrons

law of mass action

chemical law stating that the rate of a reaction is proportional to the concentration of the reacting substances

mass number

total number of protons and neutrons in an atom

matter

anything that has mass and occupies space

molecule

two or more atoms chemically bonded together

neutron

uncharged particle that resides in the nucleus of an atom; has a mass of one amu

noble gas

see inert gas

nonpolar covalent bond

type of covalent bond that forms between atoms when electrons are shared equally between them

nucleus

core of an atom; contains protons and neutrons

octet rule

rule that atoms are most stable when they hold eight electrons in their outermost shells

orbital

region surrounding the nucleus; contains electrons

periodic table

organizational chart of elements indicating the atomic number and atomic mass of each element; provides key information about the properties of the elements

polar covalent bond

type of covalent bond that forms as a result of unequal sharing of electrons, resulting in the creation of slightly positive and slightly negative charged regions of the molecule

product

molecule found on the right side of a chemical equation

proton

positively charged particle that resides in the nucleus of an atom; has a mass of one amu and a charge of +1

radioisotope

isotope that emits radiation composed of subatomic particles to form more stable elements

reactant

molecule found on the left side of a chemical equation

reversible chemical reaction

chemical reaction that functions bi-directionally, where products may turn into reactants if their concentration is great enough

valence shell

outermost shell of an atom

van der Waals interaction

very weak interaction between molecules due to temporary charges attracting atoms that are very close together

Water

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the properties of water that are critical to maintaining life
- Explain why water is an excellent solvent
- Provide examples of water's cohesive and adhesive properties
- Discuss the role of acids, bases, and buffers in homeostasis

Why do scientists spend time looking for water on other planets? Why is water so important? It is because water is essential to life as we know it. Water is one of the more abundant molecules and the one most critical to life on Earth. Approximately 60–70 percent of the human body is made up of water. Without it, life as we know it simply would not exist.

The polarity of the water molecule and its resulting hydrogen bonding make water a unique substance with special properties that are intimately tied to the processes of life. Life originally evolved in a watery environment, and most of an organism's cellular chemistry and metabolism occur inside the watery contents of the cell's cytoplasm. Special properties of water are its high heat capacity and heat of vaporization, its ability to dissolve polar molecules, its cohesive and adhesive properties, and its dissociation into ions that leads to the generation of pH. Understanding these characteristics of water helps to elucidate its importance in maintaining life.

Water's Polarity

One of water's important properties is that it is composed of polar molecules: the hydrogen and oxygen within water molecules (H_2O) form polar covalent bonds. While there is no net charge to a water molecule, the polarity of water creates a slightly positive charge on hydrogen and a slightly negative charge on oxygen, contributing to water's properties of attraction. Water's charges are generated because oxygen is more electronegative than hydrogen, making it more likely that a shared electron would be found near the oxygen nucleus than the hydrogen nucleus, thus generating the partial negative charge near the oxygen.

As a result of water's polarity, each water molecule attracts other water molecules because of the opposite charges between water molecules, forming hydrogen bonds. Water also attracts or is attracted to other polar molecules and ions. A polar substance that interacts readily with or dissolves in water is referred to as **hydrophilic** (hydro- = "water"; -philic = "loving"). In contrast, non-polar molecules such as oils and fats do not interact well with water, as shown in [\[link\]](#) and separate from it rather than dissolve in it, as we see in salad dressings containing oil and vinegar (an acidic water solution). These nonpolar compounds are called **hydrophobic** (hydro- = "water"; -phobic = "fearing").



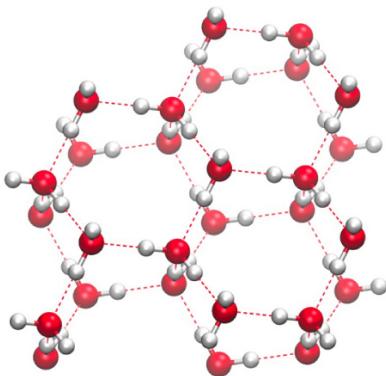
Oil and water do not mix. As this macro image of oil and water shows, oil does not dissolve in water but forms droplets instead. This is due to it being a nonpolar compound. (credit: Gautam Dogra).

Water's States: Gas, Liquid, and Solid

The formation of hydrogen bonds is an important quality of the liquid water that is crucial to life as we know it. As water molecules make hydrogen bonds with each other, water takes on some unique chemical characteristics compared to other liquids and, since living things have a high water content, understanding these chemical features is key to understanding life. In liquid water, hydrogen bonds are constantly formed and broken as the water molecules slide past each other. The breaking of these bonds is caused by the motion (kinetic energy) of the water molecules due to the heat contained in the system. When the heat is raised as water is boiled, the higher kinetic energy of the water molecules causes the hydrogen bonds to break completely and allows water molecules to escape into the air as gas (steam or water vapor). On the other hand, when the temperature of water is reduced and water freezes, the water molecules form a crystalline structure maintained by hydrogen bonding (there is not enough energy to break the hydrogen bonds) that makes ice less dense than liquid water, a phenomenon not seen in the solidification of other liquids.

Water's lower density in its solid form is due to the way hydrogen bonds are oriented as it freezes: the water molecules are pushed farther apart compared to liquid water. With most other liquids, solidification when the temperature drops includes the lowering of kinetic energy between molecules, allowing them to pack even more tightly than in liquid form and giving the solid a greater density than the liquid.

The lower density of ice, illustrated and pictured in [\[link\]](#), an anomaly, causes it to float at the surface of liquid water, such as in an iceberg or in the ice cubes in a glass of ice water. In lakes and ponds, ice will form on the surface of the water creating an insulating barrier that protects the animals and plant life in the pond from freezing. Without this layer of insulating ice, plants and animals living in the pond would freeze in the solid block of ice and could not survive. The detrimental effect of freezing on living organisms is caused by the expansion of ice relative to liquid water. The ice crystals that form upon freezing rupture the delicate membranes essential for the function of living cells, irreversibly damaging them. Cells can only survive freezing if the water in them is temporarily replaced by another liquid like glycerol.



(a)



(b)

Hydrogen bonding makes ice less dense than liquid water. The (a) lattice structure of ice makes it less dense than the freely flowing molecules of liquid water, enabling it to (b) float on water. (credit a: modification of work by Jane Whitney, image created using Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) software [\[footnote\]](#); credit b: modification of work by Carlos Ponte)

W. Humphrey W., A. Dalke, and K. Schulten, “VMD—Visual Molecular Dynamics,” *Journal of Molecular Graphics* 14 (1996): 33-38.

Note:

Link to Learning



Click [here](#) to see a 3-D animation of the structure of an ice lattice. (Image credit: Jane Whitney. Image created using Visual Molecular Dynamics

VMD software. [\[footnote\]](#))

W. Humphrey W., A. Dalke, and K. Schulten, “VMD—Visual Molecular Dynamics,” *Journal of Molecular Graphics* 14 (1996): 33-38.

Water’s High Heat Capacity

Water’s high heat capacity is a property caused by hydrogen bonding among water molecules. Water has the highest **specific heat capacity** of any liquids. Specific heat is defined as the amount of heat one gram of a substance must absorb or lose to change its temperature by one degree Celsius. For water, this amount is one **calorie**. It therefore takes water a long time to heat and long time to cool. In fact, the specific heat capacity of water is about five times more than that of sand. This explains why the land cools faster than the sea. Due to its high heat capacity, water is used by warm blooded animals to more evenly disperse heat in their bodies: it acts in a similar manner to a car’s cooling system, transporting heat from warm places to cool places, causing the body to maintain a more even temperature.

Water’s Heat of Vaporization

Water also has a high **heat of vaporization**, the amount of energy required to change one gram of a liquid substance to a gas. A considerable amount of heat energy (586 cal) is required to accomplish this change in water. This process occurs on the surface of water. As liquid water heats up, hydrogen bonding makes it difficult to separate the liquid water molecules from each other, which is required for it to enter its gaseous phase (steam). As a result, water acts as a heat sink or heat reservoir and requires much more heat to boil than does a liquid such as ethanol (grain alcohol), whose hydrogen bonding with other ethanol molecules is weaker than water’s hydrogen bonding. Eventually, as water reaches its boiling point of 100° Celsius (212° Fahrenheit), the heat is able to break the hydrogen bonds between the water molecules, and the kinetic energy (motion) between the water molecules allows them to escape from the liquid as a gas. Even when below its boiling point, water’s individual molecules acquire enough energy from

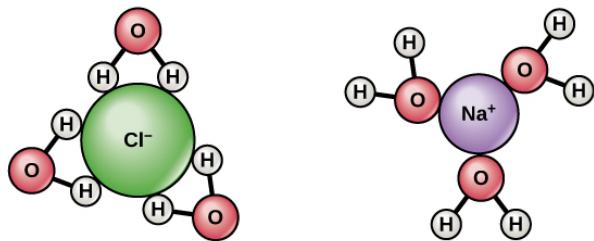
other water molecules such that some surface water molecules can escape and vaporize: this process is known as **evaporation**.

The fact that hydrogen bonds need to be broken for water to evaporate means that a substantial amount of energy is used in the process. As the water evaporates, energy is taken up by the process, cooling the environment where the evaporation is taking place. In many living organisms, including in humans, the evaporation of sweat, which is 90 percent water, allows the organism to cool so that homeostasis of body temperature can be maintained.

Water's Solvent Properties

Since water is a polar molecule with slightly positive and slightly negative charges, ions and polar molecules can readily dissolve in it. Therefore, water is referred to as a **solvent**, a substance capable of dissolving other polar molecules and ionic compounds. The charges associated with these molecules will form hydrogen bonds with water, surrounding the particle with water molecules. This is referred to as a **sphere of hydration**, or a hydration shell, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#) and serves to keep the particles separated or dispersed in the water.

When ionic compounds are added to water, the individual ions react with the polar regions of the water molecules and their ionic bonds are disrupted in the process of **dissociation**. Dissociation occurs when atoms or groups of atoms break off from molecules and form ions. Consider table salt (NaCl, or sodium chloride): when NaCl crystals are added to water, the molecules of NaCl dissociate into Na^+ and Cl^- ions, and spheres of hydration form around the ions, illustrated in [\[link\]](#). The positively charged sodium ion is surrounded by the partially negative charge of the water molecule's oxygen. The negatively charged chloride ion is surrounded by the partially positive charge of the hydrogen on the water molecule.

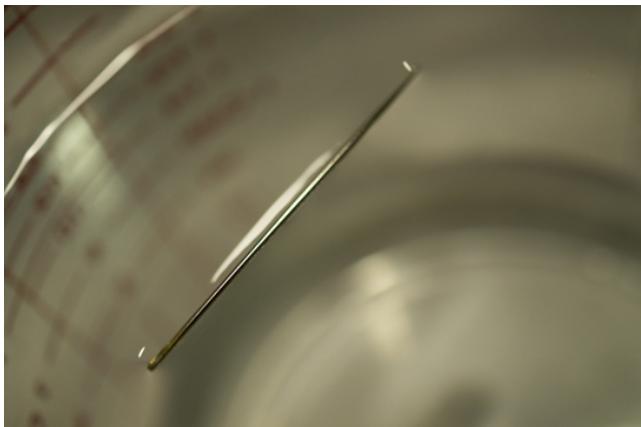


When table salt (NaCl) is mixed in water, spheres of hydration are formed around the ions.

Water's Cohesive and Adhesive Properties

Have you ever filled a glass of water to the very top and then slowly added a few more drops? Before it overflows, the water forms a dome-like shape above the rim of the glass. This water can stay above the glass because of the property of **cohesion**. In cohesion, water molecules are attracted to each other (because of hydrogen bonding), keeping the molecules together at the liquid-gas (water-air) interface, although there is no more room in the glass.

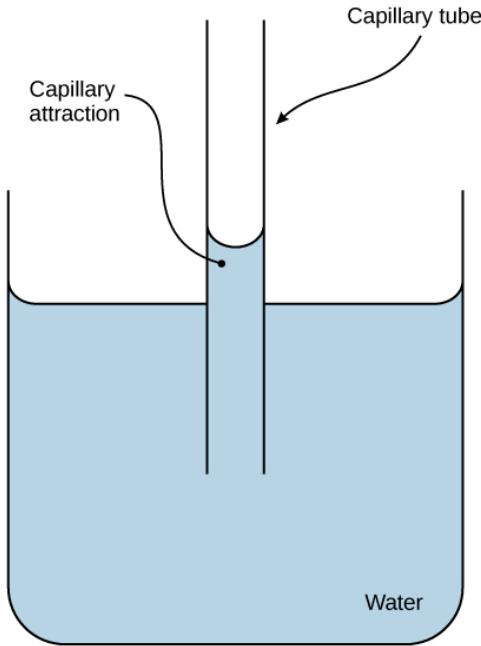
Cohesion allows for the development of **surface tension**, the capacity of a substance to withstand being ruptured when placed under tension or stress. This is also why water forms droplets when placed on a dry surface rather than being flattened out by gravity. When a small scrap of paper is placed onto the droplet of water, the paper floats on top of the water droplet even though paper is denser (heavier) than the water. Cohesion and surface tension keep the hydrogen bonds of water molecules intact and support the item floating on the top. It's even possible to "float" a needle on top of a glass of water if it is placed gently without breaking the surface tension, as shown in [\[link\]](#).



The weight of the needle is pulling the surface downward; at the same time, the surface tension is pulling it up, suspending it on the surface of the water and keeping it from sinking. Notice the indentation in the water around the needle.

(credit: Cory Zanker)

These cohesive forces are related to water's property of **adhesion**, or the attraction between water molecules and other molecules. This attraction is sometimes stronger than water's cohesive forces, especially when the water is exposed to charged surfaces such as those found on the inside of thin glass tubes known as capillary tubes. Adhesion is observed when water "climbs" up the tube placed in a glass of water: notice that the water appears to be higher on the sides of the tube than in the middle. This is because the water molecules are attracted to the charged glass walls of the capillary more than they are to each other and therefore adhere to it. This type of adhesion is called **capillary action**, and is illustrated in [\[link\]](#).



Capillary action in a glass tube is caused by the adhesive forces exerted by the internal surface of the glass exceeding the cohesive forces between the water molecules themselves. (credit: modification of work by Pearson-Scott Foresman, donated to the Wikimedia Foundation)

Why are cohesive and adhesive forces important for life? Cohesive and adhesive forces are important for the transport of water from the roots to the leaves in plants. These forces create a “pull” on the water column. This pull results from the tendency of water molecules being evaporated on the surface of the plant to stay connected to water molecules below them, and so they are pulled along. Plants use this natural phenomenon to help transport water from their roots to their leaves. Without these properties of water, plants would be unable to receive the water and the dissolved minerals they require. In another example, insects such as the water strider,

shown in [link], use the surface tension of water to stay afloat on the surface layer of water and even mate there.

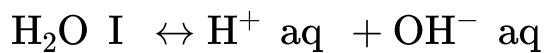


Water's cohesive and adhesive properties allow this water strider (*Gerris* sp.) to stay afloat. (credit: Tim Vickers)

pH, Buffers, Acids, and Bases

The pH of a solution indicates its acidity or alkalinity.

Equation:



litmus or pH paper, filter paper that has been treated with a natural water-soluble dye so it can be used as a pH indicator, to test how much acid (acidity) or base (alkalinity) exists in a solution. You might have even used some to test whether the water in a swimming pool is properly treated. In both cases, the pH test measures the concentration of hydrogen ions in a given solution.

Hydrogen ions are spontaneously generated in pure water by the dissociation (ionization) of a small percentage of water molecules into

equal numbers of hydrogen (H^+) ions and hydroxide (OH^-) ions. While the hydroxide ions are kept in solution by their hydrogen bonding with other water molecules, the hydrogen ions, consisting of naked protons, are immediately attracted to un-ionized water molecules, forming hydronium ions (H_3O^+). Still, by convention, scientists refer to hydrogen ions and their concentration as if they were free in this state in liquid water.

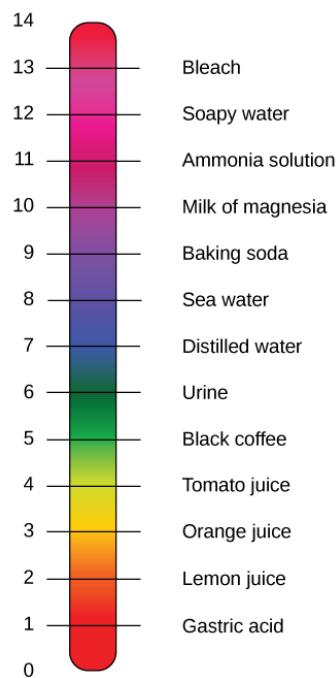
The concentration of hydrogen ions dissociating from pure water is 1×10^{-7} moles H^+ ions per liter of water. Moles (mol) are a way to express the amount of a substance (which can be atoms, molecules, ions, etc), with one mole being equal to 6.02×10^{23} particles of the substance. Therefore, 1 mole of water is equal to 6.02×10^{23} water molecules. The pH is calculated as the negative of the base 10 logarithm of this concentration. The \log_{10} of 1×10^{-7} is -7.0, and the negative of this number (indicated by the “p” of “pH”) yields a pH of 7.0, which is also known as neutral pH. The pH inside of human cells and blood are examples of two areas of the body where near-neutral pH is maintained.

Non-neutral pH readings result from dissolving acids or bases in water. Using the negative logarithm to generate positive integers, high concentrations of hydrogen ions yield a low pH number, whereas low levels of hydrogen ions result in a high pH. An **acid** is a substance that increases the concentration of hydrogen ions (H^+) in a solution, usually by having one of its hydrogen atoms dissociate. A **base** provides either hydroxide ions (OH^-) or other negatively charged ions that combine with hydrogen ions, reducing their concentration in the solution and thereby raising the pH. In cases where the base releases hydroxide ions, these ions bind to free hydrogen ions, generating new water molecules.

The stronger the acid, the more readily it donates H^+ . For example, hydrochloric acid (HCl) completely dissociates into hydrogen and chloride ions and is highly acidic, whereas the acids in tomato juice or vinegar do not completely dissociate and are considered weak acids. Conversely, strong bases are those substances that readily donate OH^- or take up hydrogen ions. Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and many household cleaners are highly alkaline and give up OH^- rapidly when placed in water, thereby raising the pH. An example of a weak basic solution is seawater, which has

a pH near 8.0, close enough to neutral pH that marine organisms adapted to this saline environment are able to thrive in it.

The **pH scale** is, as previously mentioned, an inverse logarithm and ranges from 0 to 14 ([\[link\]](#)). Anything below 7.0 (ranging from 0.0 to 6.9) is acidic, and anything above 7.0 (from 7.1 to 14.0) is alkaline. Extremes in pH in either direction from 7.0 are usually considered inhospitable to life. The pH inside cells (6.8) and the pH in the blood (7.4) are both very close to neutral. However, the environment in the stomach is highly acidic, with a pH of 1 to 2. So how do the cells of the stomach survive in such an acidic environment? How do they homeostatically maintain the near neutral pH inside them? The answer is that they cannot do it and are constantly dying. New stomach cells are constantly produced to replace dead ones, which are digested by the stomach acids. It is estimated that the lining of the human stomach is completely replaced every seven to ten days.



The pH scale measures the concentration of hydrogen ions (H^+) in a solution.

(credit: modification of work
by Edward Stevens)

Note:

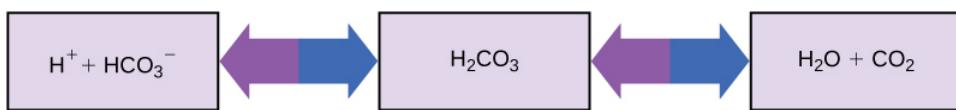
Link to Learning



Watch this video for a straightforward explanation of pH and its logarithmic scale.

https://www.openstaxcollege.org/l/pH_scale

So how can organisms whose bodies require a near-neutral pH ingest acidic and basic substances (a human drinking orange juice, for example) and survive? Buffers are the key. **Buffers** readily absorb excess H^+ or OH^- , keeping the pH of the body carefully maintained in the narrow range required for survival. Maintaining a constant blood pH is critical to a person's well-being. The buffer maintaining the pH of human blood involves carbonic acid (H_2CO_3), bicarbonate ion (HCO_3^-), and carbon dioxide (CO_2). When bicarbonate ions combine with free hydrogen ions and become carbonic acid, hydrogen ions are removed, moderating pH changes. Similarly, as shown in [link], excess carbonic acid can be converted to carbon dioxide gas and exhaled through the lungs. This prevents too many free hydrogen ions from building up in the blood and dangerously reducing the blood's pH. Likewise, if too much OH^- is introduced into the system, carbonic acid will combine with it to create bicarbonate, lowering the pH. Without this buffer system, the body's pH would fluctuate enough to put survival in jeopardy.



This diagram shows the body's buffering of blood pH levels. The blue arrows show the process of raising pH as more CO_2 is made. The purple arrows indicate the reverse process: the lowering of pH as more bicarbonate is created.

Other examples of buffers are antacids used to combat excess stomach acid. Many of these over-the-counter medications work in the same way as blood buffers, usually with at least one ion capable of absorbing hydrogen and moderating pH, bringing relief to those that suffer “heartburn” after eating. The unique properties of water that contribute to this capacity to balance pH—as well as water’s other characteristics—are essential to sustaining life on Earth.

Note:

Link to Learning



To learn more about water. Visit the [U.S. Geological Survey Water Science for Schools](#) All About Water! website.

Section Summary

Water has many properties that are critical to maintaining life. It is a polar molecule, allowing for the formation of hydrogen bonds. Hydrogen bonds allow ions and other polar molecules to dissolve in water. Therefore, water is an excellent solvent. The hydrogen bonds between water molecules cause the water to have a high heat capacity, meaning it takes a lot of added heat to raise its temperature. As the temperature rises, the hydrogen bonds between water continually break and form anew. This allows for the overall temperature to remain stable, although energy is added to the system. Water also exhibits a high heat of vaporization, which is key to how organisms cool themselves by the evaporation of sweat. Water's cohesive forces allow for the property of surface tension, whereas its adhesive properties are seen as water rises inside capillary tubes. The pH value is a measure of hydrogen ion concentration in a solution and is one of many chemical characteristics that is highly regulated in living organisms through homeostasis. Acids and bases can change pH values, but buffers tend to moderate the changes they cause. These properties of water are intimately connected to the biochemical and physical processes performed by living organisms, and life would be very different if these properties were altered, if it could exist at all.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem: Which of the following statements is not true?

- a. Water is polar.
- b. Water stabilizes temperature.
- c. Water is essential for life.
- d. Water is the most abundant molecule in the Earth's atmosphere.

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

When acids are added to a solution, the pH should _____.

- a. decrease
- b. increase
- c. stay the same
- d. cannot tell without testing

Solution:

A

Exercise:

Problem:

A molecule that binds up excess hydrogen ions in a solution is called a(n) _____.

- a. acid
- b. isotope
- c. base
- d. donator

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem: Which of the following statements is true?

- a. Acids and bases cannot mix together.
- b. Acids and bases will neutralize each other.
- c. Acids, but not bases, can change the pH of a solution.

d. Acids donate hydroxide ions (OH^-); bases donate hydrogen ions (H^+).

Solution:

B

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem: Discuss how buffers help prevent drastic swings in pH.

Solution:

Buffers absorb the free hydrogen ions and hydroxide ions that result from chemical reactions. Because they can bond these ions, they prevent increases or decreases in pH. An example of a buffer system is the bicarbonate system in the human body. This system is able to absorb hydrogen and hydroxide ions to prevent changes in pH and keep cells functioning properly.

Exercise:

Problem: Why can some insects walk on water?

Solution:

Some insects can walk on water, although they are heavier (denser) than water, because of the surface tension of water. Surface tension results from cohesion, or the attraction between water molecules at the surface of the body of water (the liquid-air/gas interface).

Glossary

acid

molecule that donates hydrogen ions and increases the concentration of hydrogen ions in a solution

adhesion

attraction between water molecules and other molecules

base

molecule that donates hydroxide ions or otherwise binds excess hydrogen ions and decreases the concentration of hydrogen ions in a solution

buffer

substance that prevents a change in pH by absorbing or releasing hydrogen or hydroxide ions

calorie

amount of heat required to change the temperature of one gram of water by one degree Celsius

capillary action

occurs because water molecules are attracted to charges on the inner surfaces of narrow tubular structures such as glass tubes, drawing the water molecules to the sides of the tubes

cohesion

intermolecular forces between water molecules caused by the polar nature of water; responsible for surface tension

dissociation

release of an ion from a molecule such that the original molecule now consists of an ion and the charged remains of the original, such as when water dissociates into H^+ and OH^-

evaporation

separation of individual molecules from the surface of a body of water, leaves of a plant, or the skin of an organism

heat of vaporization of water

high amount of energy required for liquid water to turn into water vapor

hydrophilic

describes ions or polar molecules that interact well with other polar molecules such as water

hydrophobic

describes uncharged non-polar molecules that do not interact well with polar molecules such as water

litmus paper

(also, pH paper) filter paper that has been treated with a natural water-soluble dye that changes its color as the pH of the environment changes so it can be used as a pH indicator

pH paper

see litmus paper

pH scale

scale ranging from zero to 14 that is inversely proportional to the concentration of hydrogen ions in a solution

solvent

substance capable of dissolving another substance

specific heat capacity

the amount of heat one gram of a substance must absorb or lose to change its temperature by one degree Celsius

sphere of hydration

when a polar water molecule surrounds charged or polar molecules thus keeping them dissolved and in solution

surface tension

tension at the surface of a body of liquid that prevents the molecules from separating; created by the attractive cohesive forces between the

molecules of the liquid

Carbon

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Explain why carbon is important for life
- Describe the role of functional groups in biological molecules

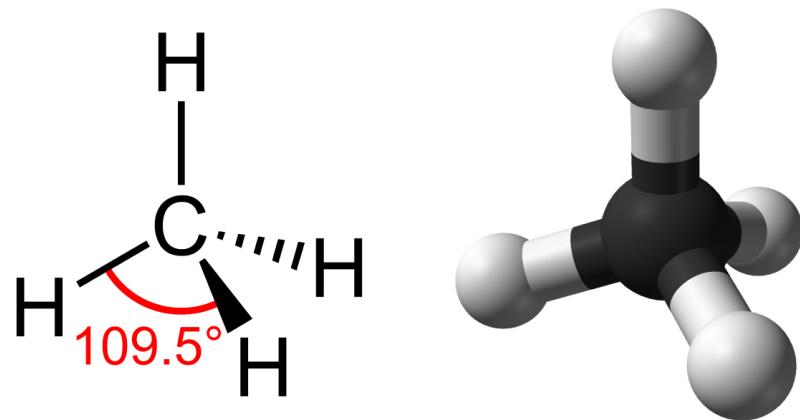
Cells are made of many complex molecules called macromolecules, such as proteins, nucleic acids (RNA and DNA), carbohydrates, and lipids. The macromolecules are a subset of **organic molecules** (any carbon-containing liquid, solid, or gas) that are especially important for life. The fundamental component for all of these macromolecules is carbon. The carbon atom has unique properties that allow it to form covalent bonds to as many as four different atoms, making this versatile element ideal to serve as the basic structural component, or “backbone,” of the macromolecules.

Individual carbon atoms have an incomplete outermost electron shell. With an atomic number of 6 (six electrons and six protons), the first two electrons fill the inner shell, leaving four in the second shell. Therefore, carbon atoms can form up to four covalent bonds with other atoms to satisfy the octet rule. The methane molecule provides an example: it has the chemical formula CH₄. Each of its four hydrogen atoms forms a single covalent bond with the carbon atom by sharing a pair of electrons. This results in a filled outermost shell.

Hydrocarbons

Hydrocarbons are organic molecules consisting entirely of carbon and hydrogen, such as methane (CH₄) described above. We often use hydrocarbons in our daily lives as fuels—like the propane in a gas grill or the butane in a lighter. The many covalent bonds between the atoms in hydrocarbons store a great amount of energy, which is released when these molecules are burned (oxidized). Methane, an excellent fuel, is the simplest hydrocarbon molecule, with a central carbon atom bonded to four different hydrogen atoms, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#). The geometry of the methane molecule, where the atoms reside in three dimensions, is determined by the shape of its electron orbitals. The carbons and the four hydrogen atoms

form a shape known as a tetrahedron, with four triangular faces; for this reason, methane is described as having tetrahedral geometry.



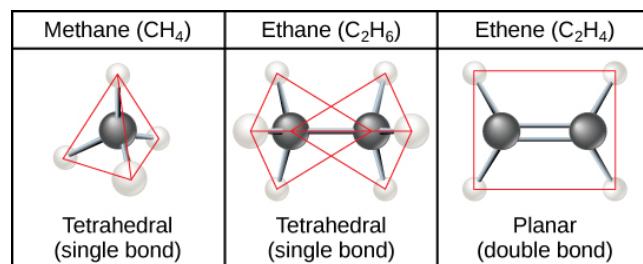
Methane has a tetrahedral geometry, with each of the four hydrogen atoms spaced 109.5° apart.

As the backbone of the large molecules of living things, hydrocarbons may exist as linear carbon chains, carbon rings, or combinations of both. Furthermore, individual carbon-to-carbon bonds may be single, double, or triple covalent bonds, and each type of bond affects the geometry of the molecule in a specific way. This three-dimensional shape or conformation of the large molecules of life (macromolecules) is critical to how they function.

Hydrocarbon Chains

Hydrocarbon chains are formed by successive bonds between carbon atoms and may be branched or unbranched. Furthermore, the overall geometry of the molecule is altered by the different geometries of single, double, and triple covalent bonds, illustrated in [\[link\]](#). The hydrocarbons ethane, ethene, and ethyne serve as examples of how different carbon-to-carbon bonds

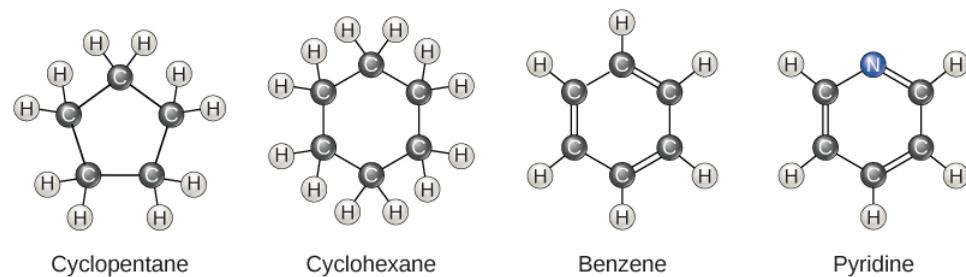
affect the geometry of the molecule. The names of all three molecules start with the prefix “eth-,” which is the prefix for two carbon hydrocarbons. The suffixes “-ane,” “-ene,” and “-yne” refer to the presence of single, double, or triple carbon-carbon bonds, respectively. Thus, propane, propene, and propyne follow the same pattern with three carbon molecules, butane, butene, and butyne for four carbon molecules, and so on. Double and triple bonds change the geometry of the molecule: single bonds allow rotation along the axis of the bond, whereas double bonds lead to a planar configuration and triple bonds to a linear one. These geometries have a significant impact on the shape a particular molecule can assume.



When carbon forms single bonds with other atoms, the shape is tetrahedral. When two carbon atoms form a double bond, the shape is planar, or flat. Single bonds, like those found in ethane, are able to rotate. Double bonds, like those found in ethene cannot rotate, so the atoms on either side are locked in place.

Hydrocarbon Rings

So far, the hydrocarbons we have discussed have been **aliphatic hydrocarbons**, which consist of linear chains of carbon atoms. Another type of hydrocarbon, **aromatic hydrocarbons**, consists of closed rings of carbon atoms. Ring structures are found in hydrocarbons, sometimes with the presence of double bonds, which can be seen by comparing the structure of cyclohexane to benzene in [\[link\]](#). Examples of biological molecules that incorporate the benzene ring include some amino acids and cholesterol and its derivatives, including the hormones estrogen and testosterone. The benzene ring is also found in the herbicide 2,4-D. Benzene is a natural component of crude oil and has been classified as a carcinogen. Some hydrocarbons have both aliphatic and aromatic portions; beta-carotene is an example of such a hydrocarbon.



Carbon can form five-and six membered rings. Single or double bonds may connect the carbons in the ring, and nitrogen may be substituted for carbon.

Isomers

The three-dimensional placement of atoms and chemical bonds within organic molecules is central to understanding their chemistry. Molecules that share the same chemical formula but differ in the placement (structure) of their atoms and/or chemical bonds are known as **isomers**. **Structural isomers** (like butane and isobutene shown in [\[link\]](#) a) differ in the placement of their covalent bonds: both molecules have four carbons and ten hydrogens (C_4H_{10}), but the different arrangement of the atoms within

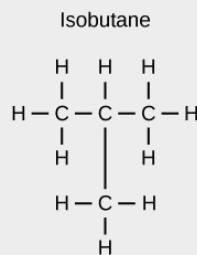
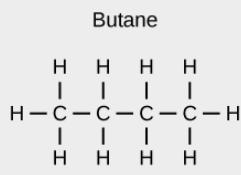
the molecules leads to differences in their chemical properties. For example, due to their different chemical properties, butane is suited for use as a fuel for cigarette lighters and torches, whereas isobutene is suited for use as a refrigerant and a propellant in spray cans.

Geometric isomers, on the other hand, have similar placements of their covalent bonds but differ in how these bonds are made to the surrounding atoms, especially in carbon-to-carbon double bonds. In the simple molecule butene (C_4H_8), the two methyl groups (CH_3) can be on either side of the double covalent bond central to the molecule, as illustrated in [link] b. When the carbons are bound on the same side of the double bond, this is the *cis* configuration; if they are on opposite sides of the double bond, it is a *trans* configuration. In the *trans* configuration, the carbons form a more or less linear structure, whereas the carbons in the *cis* configuration make a bend (change in direction) of the carbon backbone.

Note:

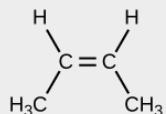
Art Connection

(a) Structural isomers



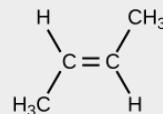
(b) Geometric isomers

cis-2-butene



methyl groups on same side of double bond

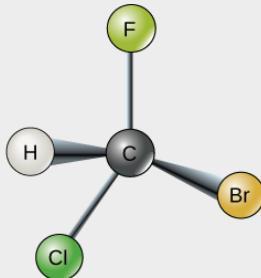
trans-2-butene



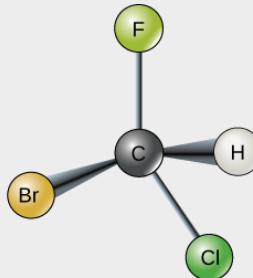
methyl groups on opposite sides of double bond

(c) Enantiomers

L-isomer



D-isomer



Molecules that have the same number and type of atoms arranged differently are called isomers. (a) Structural isomers have a different covalent arrangement of atoms.

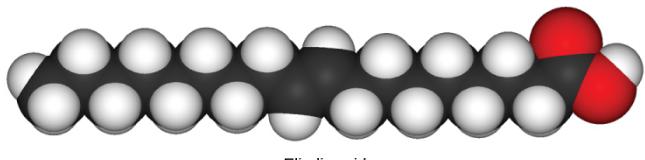
(b) Geometric isomers have a different arrangement of atoms around a double bond.

(c) Enantiomers are mirror images of each other.

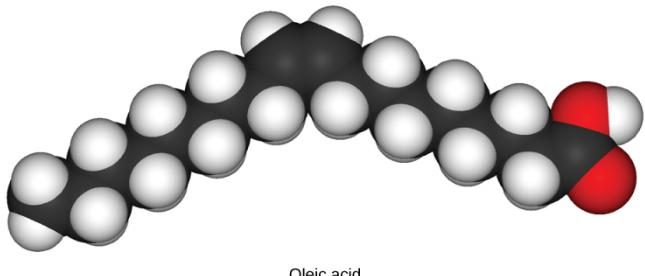
Which of the following statements is false?

- a. Molecules with the formulas $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$ could be structural isomers.
- b. Molecules must have a double bond to be *cis-trans* isomers.
- c. To be enantiomers, a molecule must have at least three different atoms or groups connected to a central carbon.
- d. To be enantiomers, a molecule must have at least four different atoms or groups connected to a central carbon.

In triglycerides (fats and oils), long carbon chains known as fatty acids may contain double bonds, which can be in either the *cis* or *trans* configuration, illustrated in [[link](#)]. Fats with at least one double bond between carbon atoms are unsaturated fats. When some of these bonds are in the *cis* configuration, the resulting bend in the carbon backbone of the chain means that triglyceride molecules cannot pack tightly, so they remain liquid (oil) at room temperature. On the other hand, triglycerides with *trans* double bonds (popularly called trans fats), have relatively linear fatty acids that are able to pack tightly together at room temperature and form solid fats. In the human diet, trans fats are linked to an increased risk of cardiovascular disease, so many food manufacturers have reduced or eliminated their use in recent years. In contrast to unsaturated fats, triglycerides without double bonds between carbon atoms are called saturated fats, meaning that they contain all the hydrogen atoms available. Saturated fats are a solid at room temperature and usually of animal origin.



Eliadic acid

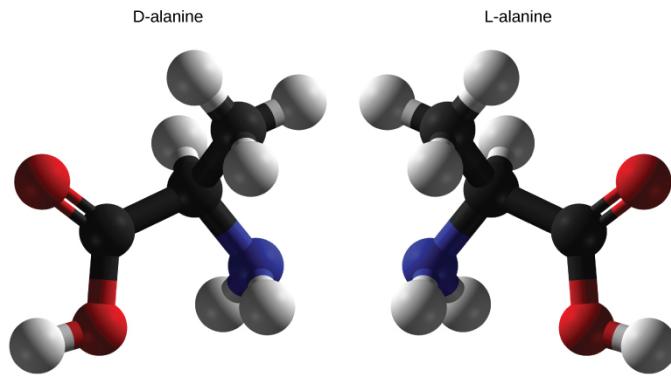


Oleic acid

These space-filling models show a *cis* (oleic acid) and a *trans* (eliadic acid) fatty acid. Notice the bend in the molecule caused by the *cis* configuration.

Enantiomers

Enantiomers are molecules that share the same chemical structure and chemical bonds but differ in the three-dimensional placement of atoms so that they are mirror images. As shown in [\[link\]](#), an amino acid alanine example, the two structures are non-superimposable. In nature, only the L-forms of amino acids are used to make proteins. Some D forms of amino acids are seen in the cell walls of bacteria, but never in their proteins. Similarly, the D-form of glucose is the main product of photosynthesis and the L-form of the molecule is rarely seen in nature.



D-alanine and L-alanine are examples of enantiomers or mirror images. Only the L-forms of amino acids are used to make proteins.

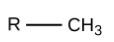
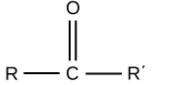
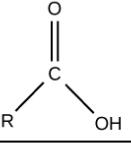
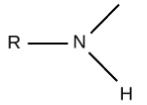
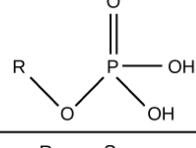
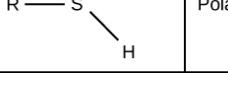
Functional Groups

Functional groups are groups of atoms that occur within molecules and confer specific chemical properties to those molecules. They are found along the “carbon backbone” of macromolecules. This carbon backbone is formed by chains and/or rings of carbon atoms with the occasional substitution of an element such as nitrogen or oxygen. Molecules with other elements in their carbon backbone are **substituted hydrocarbons**.

The functional groups in a macromolecule are usually attached to the carbon backbone at one or several different places along its chain and/or ring structure. Each of the four types of macromolecules—proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids—has its own characteristic set of functional groups that contributes greatly to its differing chemical properties and its function in living organisms.

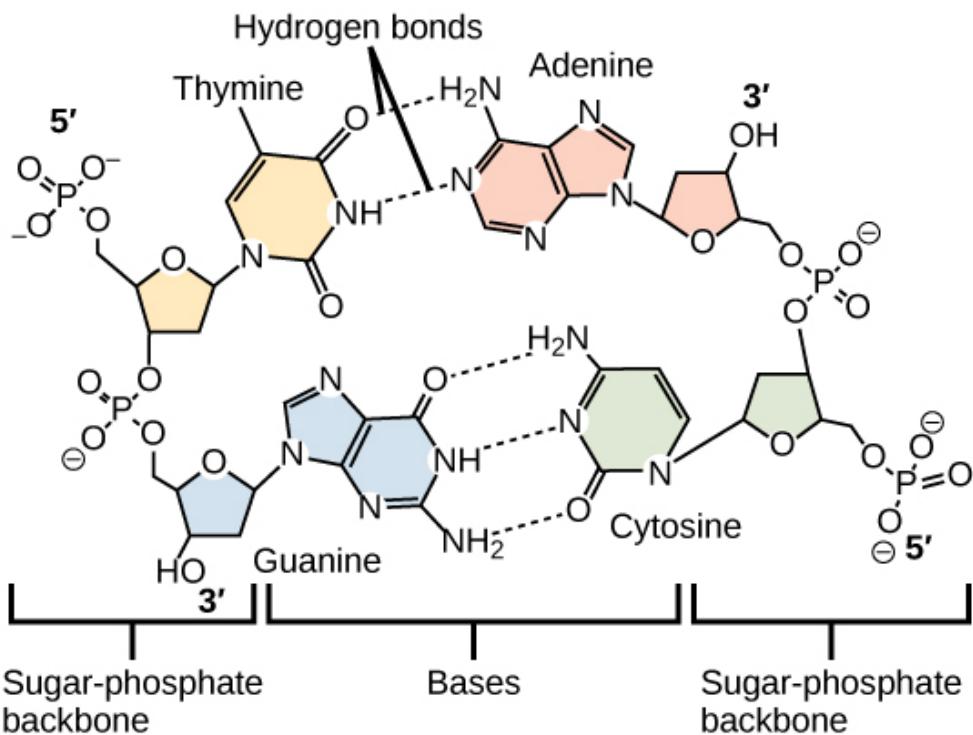
A functional group can participate in specific chemical reactions. Some of the important functional groups in biological molecules are shown in [[link](#)]; they include: hydroxyl, methyl, carbonyl, carboxyl, amino, phosphate, and sulfhydryl. These groups play an important role in the formation of molecules like DNA, proteins, carbohydrates, and lipids. Functional groups

are usually classified as hydrophobic or hydrophilic depending on their charge or polarity characteristics. An example of a hydrophobic group is the non-polar methane molecule. Among the hydrophilic functional groups is the carboxyl group found in amino acids, some amino acid side chains, and the fatty acids that form triglycerides and phospholipids. This carboxyl group ionizes to release hydrogen ions (H^+) from the COOH group resulting in the negatively charged COO^- group; this contributes to the hydrophilic nature of whatever molecule it is found on. Other functional groups, such as the carbonyl group, have a partially negatively charged oxygen atom that may form hydrogen bonds with water molecules, again making the molecule more hydrophilic.

Functional Group	Structure	Properties
Hydroxyl		Polar
Methyl		Nonpolar
Carbonyl		Polar
Carboxyl		Charged, ionizes to release H^+ . Since carboxyl groups can release H^+ ions into solution, they are considered acidic.
Amino		Charged, accepts H^+ to form NH_3^+ . Since amino groups can remove H^+ from solution, they are considered basic.
Phosphate		Charged, ionizes to release H^+ . Since phosphate groups can release H^+ ions into solution, they are considered acidic.
Sulphydryl		Polar

The functional groups shown here are found in many different biological molecules.

Hydrogen bonds between functional groups (within the same molecule or between different molecules) are important to the function of many macromolecules and help them to fold properly into and maintain the appropriate shape for functioning. Hydrogen bonds are also involved in various recognition processes, such as DNA complementary base pairing and the binding of an enzyme to its substrate, as illustrated in [\[link\]](#).



Hydrogen bonds connect two strands of DNA together to create the double-helix structure.

Section Summary

The unique properties of carbon make it a central part of biological molecules. Carbon binds to oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen covalently to

form the many molecules important for cellular function. Carbon has four electrons in its outermost shell and can form four bonds. Carbon and hydrogen can form hydrocarbon chains or rings. Functional groups are groups of atoms that confer specific properties to hydrocarbon (or substituted hydrocarbon) chains or rings that define their overall chemical characteristics and function.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem: [\[link\]](#) Which of the following statements is false?

- a. Molecules with the formulas $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$ could be structural isomers.
- b. Molecules must have a double bond to be *cis-trans* isomers.
- c. To be enantiomers, a molecule must have at least three different atoms or groups connected to a central carbon.
- d. To be enantiomers, a molecule must have at least four different atoms or groups connected to a central carbon.

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) C

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem:

Each carbon molecule can bond with as many as _____ other atom(s) or molecule(s).

- a. one
- b. two

- c. six
- d. four

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

Which of the following is not a functional group that can bond with carbon?

- a. sodium
- b. hydroxyl
- c. phosphate
- d. carbonyl

Solution:

A

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem: What property of carbon makes it essential for organic life?

Solution:

Carbon is unique and found in all living things because it can form up to four covalent bonds between atoms or molecules. These can be nonpolar or polar covalent bonds, and they allow for the formation of long chains of carbon molecules that combine to form proteins and DNA.

Exercise:**Problem:**

Compare and contrast saturated and unsaturated triglycerides.

Solution:

Saturated triglycerides contain no double bonds between carbon atoms; they are usually solid at room temperature. Unsaturated triglycerides contain at least one double bond between carbon atoms and are usually liquid at room temperature.

Glossary

aliphatic hydrocarbon

hydrocarbon consisting of a linear chain of carbon atoms

aromatic hydrocarbon

hydrocarbon consisting of closed rings of carbon atoms

enantiomers

molecules that share overall structure and bonding patterns, but differ in how the atoms are three dimensionally placed such that they are mirror images of each other

functional group

group of atoms that provides or imparts a specific function to a carbon skeleton

geometric isomer

isomer with similar bonding patterns differing in the placement of atoms alongside a double covalent bond

hydrocarbon

molecule that consists only of carbon and hydrogen

isomers

molecules that differ from one another even though they share the same chemical formula

organic molecule

any molecule containing carbon (except carbon dioxide)

structural isomers

molecules that share a chemical formula but differ in the placement of their chemical bonds

substituted hydrocarbon

hydrocarbon chain or ring containing an atom of another element in place of one of the backbone carbons

Introduction

class="introduction"

Foods such as bread, fruit, and cheese are rich sources of biological macromolecules . (credit: modification of work by Bengt Nyman)



Food provides the body with the nutrients it needs to survive. Many of these critical nutrients are biological macromolecules, or large molecules, necessary for life. These macromolecules (polymers) are built from

different combinations of smaller organic molecules (monomers). What specific types of biological macromolecules do living things require? How are these molecules formed? What functions do they serve? In this chapter, these questions will be explored.

Synthesis of Biological Macromolecules

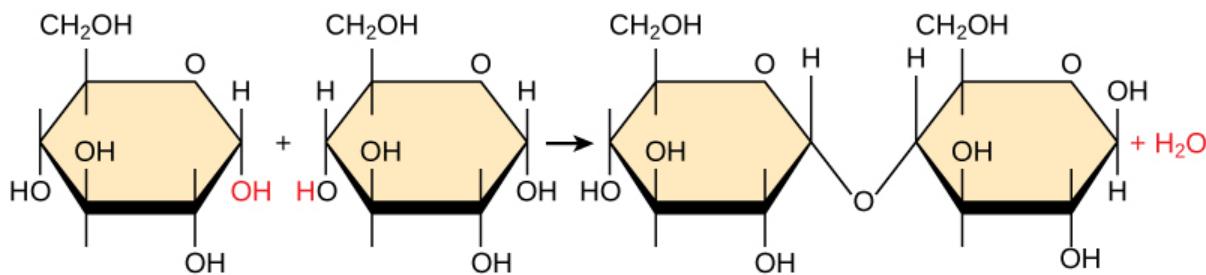
By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Understand the synthesis of macromolecules
- Explain dehydration (or condensation) and hydrolysis reactions

As you've learned, **biological macromolecules** are large molecules, necessary for life, that are built from smaller organic molecules. There are four major classes of biological macromolecules (carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids); each is an important cell component and performs a wide array of functions. Combined, these molecules make up the majority of a cell's dry mass (recall that water makes up the majority of its complete mass). Biological macromolecules are organic, meaning they contain carbon. In addition, they may contain hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and additional minor elements.

Dehydration Synthesis

Most macromolecules are made from single subunits, or building blocks, called **monomers**. The monomers combine with each other using covalent bonds to form larger molecules known as **polymers**. In doing so, monomers release water molecules as byproducts. This type of reaction is known as **dehydration synthesis**, which means "to put together while losing water."

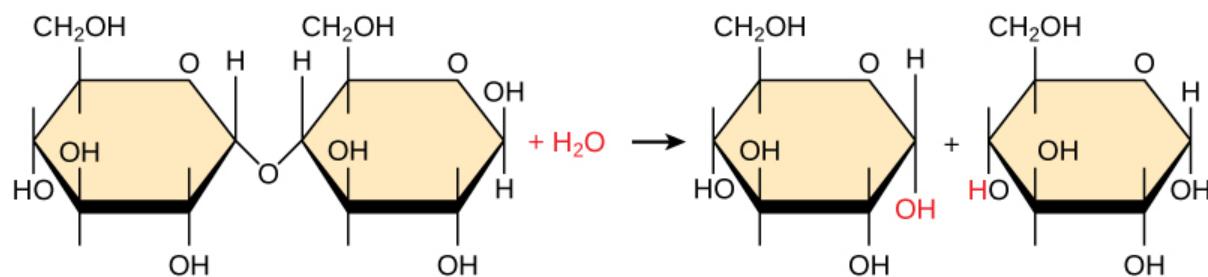


In the dehydration synthesis reaction depicted above, two molecules of glucose are linked together to form the disaccharide maltose. In the process, a water molecule is formed.

In a dehydration synthesis reaction ([\[link\]](#)), the hydrogen of one monomer combines with the hydroxyl group of another monomer, releasing a molecule of water. At the same time, the monomers share electrons and form covalent bonds. As additional monomers join, this chain of repeating monomers forms a polymer. Different types of monomers can combine in many configurations, giving rise to a diverse group of macromolecules. Even one kind of monomer can combine in a variety of ways to form several different polymers: for example, glucose monomers are the constituents of starch, glycogen, and cellulose.

Hydrolysis

Polymers are broken down into monomers in a process known as hydrolysis, which means “to split water,” a reaction in which a water molecule is used during the breakdown ([\[link\]](#)). During these reactions, the polymer is broken into two components: one part gains a hydrogen atom (H^+) and the other gains a hydroxyl molecule (OH^-) from a split water molecule.



In the hydrolysis reaction shown here, the disaccharide maltose is broken down to form two glucose monomers with the addition of a water molecule. Note that this reaction is the reverse of the synthesis reaction shown in [\[link\]](#).

Dehydration and **hydrolysis reactions** are catalyzed, or “sped up,” by specific enzymes; dehydration reactions involve the formation of new bonds, requiring energy, while hydrolysis reactions break bonds and release energy. These reactions are similar for most macromolecules, but each monomer and polymer reaction is specific for its class. For example, in our bodies, food is hydrolyzed, or broken down, into smaller molecules by catalytic enzymes in the digestive system. This allows for easy absorption of nutrients by cells in the intestine. Each macromolecule is broken down by a specific enzyme. For instance, carbohydrates are broken down by amylase, sucrase, lactase, or maltase. Proteins are broken down by the enzymes pepsin and peptidase, and by hydrochloric acid. Lipids are broken down by lipases. Breakdown of these macromolecules provides energy for cellular activities.

Note:

Link to Learning



Visit [this site](#) to see visual representations of dehydration synthesis and hydrolysis.

Section Summary

Proteins, carbohydrates, nucleic acids, and lipids are the four major classes of biological macromolecules—large molecules necessary for life that are built from smaller organic molecules. Macromolecules are made up of single units known as monomers that are joined by covalent bonds to form larger polymers. The polymer is more than the sum of its parts: it acquires

new characteristics, and leads to an osmotic pressure that is much lower than that formed by its ingredients; this is an important advantage in the maintenance of cellular osmotic conditions. A monomer joins with another monomer with the release of a water molecule, leading to the formation of a covalent bond. These types of reactions are known as dehydration or condensation reactions. When polymers are broken down into smaller units (monomers), a molecule of water is used for each bond broken by these reactions; such reactions are known as hydrolysis reactions. Dehydration and hydrolysis reactions are similar for all macromolecules, but each monomer and polymer reaction is specific to its class. Dehydration reactions typically require an investment of energy for new bond formation, while hydrolysis reactions typically release energy by breaking bonds.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem: Dehydration synthesis leads to formation of

- a. monomers
- b. polymers
- c. water and polymers
- d. none of the above

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem:

During the breakdown of polymers, which of the following reactions takes place?

- a. hydrolysis
- b. dehydration

- c. condensation
- d. covalent bond

Solution:

A

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem: Why are biological macromolecules considered organic?

Solution:

Biological macromolecules are organic because they contain carbon.

Exercise:

Problem:

What role do electrons play in dehydration synthesis and hydrolysis?

Solution:

In a dehydration synthesis reaction, the hydrogen of one monomer combines with the hydroxyl group of another monomer, releasing a molecule of water. This creates an opening in the outer shells of atoms in the monomers, which can share electrons and form covalent bonds.

Glossary

biological macromolecule

large molecule necessary for life that is built from smaller organic molecules

dehydration synthesis

(also, condensation) reaction that links monomer molecules together, releasing a molecule of water for each bond formed

hydrolysis

reaction causes breakdown of larger molecules into smaller molecules with the utilization of water

monomer

smallest unit of larger molecules called polymers

polymer

chain of monomer residues that is linked by covalent bonds;
polymerization is the process of polymer formation from monomers by condensation

Carbohydrates

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Discuss the role of carbohydrates in cells and in the extracellular materials of animals and plants
- Explain the classifications of carbohydrates
- List common monosaccharides, disaccharides, and polysaccharides

Most people are familiar with carbohydrates, one type of macromolecule, especially when it comes to what we eat. To lose weight, some individuals adhere to “low-carb” diets. Athletes, in contrast, often “carb-load” before important competitions to ensure that they have enough energy to compete at a high level. Carbohydrates are, in fact, an essential part of our diet; grains, fruits, and vegetables are all natural sources of carbohydrates. Carbohydrates provide energy to the body, particularly through glucose, a simple sugar that is a component of **starch** and an ingredient in many staple foods. Carbohydrates also have other important functions in humans, animals, and plants.

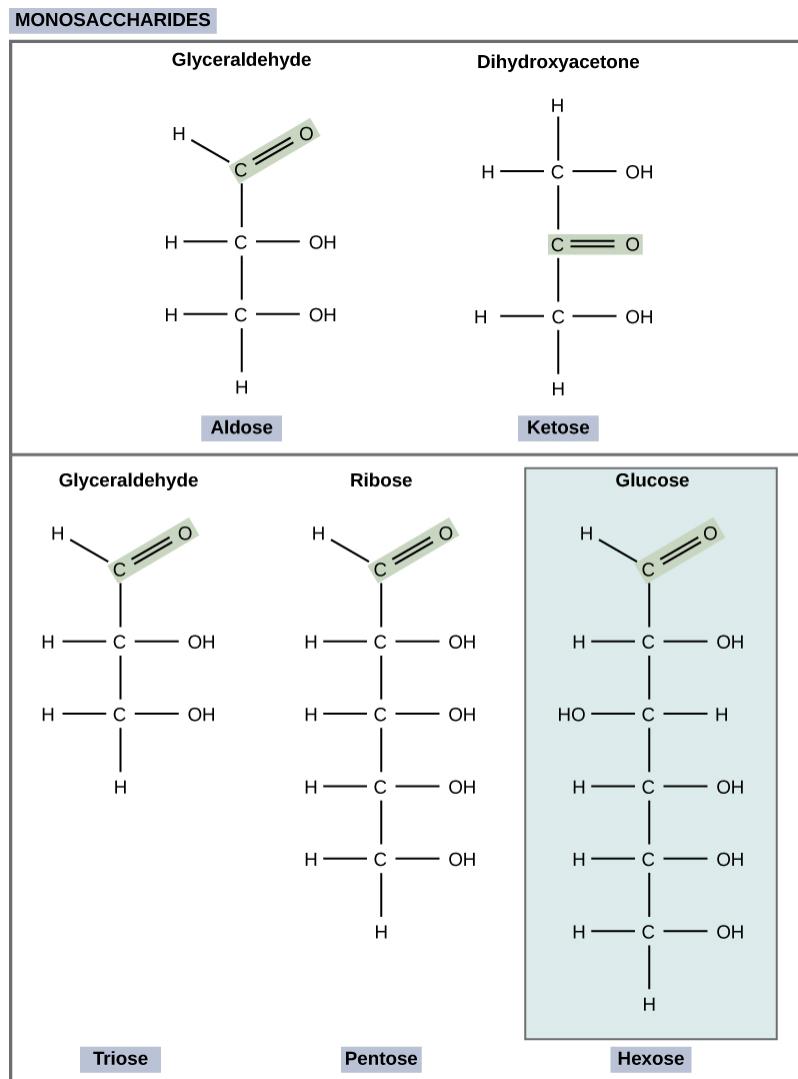
Molecular Structures

Carbohydrates can be represented by the stoichiometric formula $(CH_2O)_n$, where n is the number of carbons in the molecule. In other words, the ratio of carbon to hydrogen to oxygen is 1:2:1 in carbohydrate molecules. This formula also explains the origin of the term “carbohydrate”: the components are carbon (“carbo”) and the components of water (hence, “hydrate”). Carbohydrates are classified into three subtypes: monosaccharides, disaccharides, and polysaccharides.

Monosaccharides

Monosaccharides (mono- = “one”; sacchar- = “sweet”) are simple sugars, the most common of which is glucose. In monosaccharides, the number of carbons usually ranges from three to seven. Most monosaccharide names end with the suffix -ose. If the sugar has an aldehyde group (the functional group with the structure R-CHO), it is known as an aldose, and if it has a

ketone group (the functional group with the structure $\text{RC}(=\text{O})\text{R}'$), it is known as a ketose. Depending on the number of carbons in the sugar, they also may be known as trioses (three carbons), pentoses (five carbons), and or hexoses (six carbons). See [\[link\]](#) for an illustration of the monosaccharides.



Monosaccharides are classified based on the position of their carbonyl group and the number of carbons in the backbone. Aldoses have a carbonyl group (indicated in green) at the end of the carbon chain, and ketoses

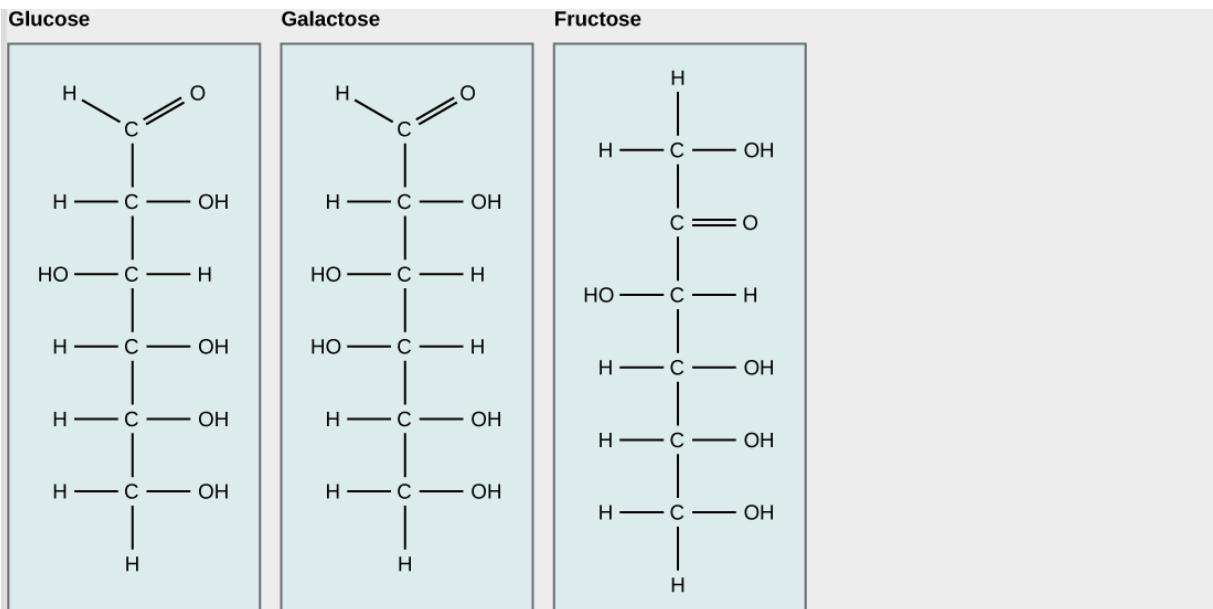
have a carbonyl group in the middle of the carbon chain. Trioses, pentoses, and hexoses have three, five, and six carbon backbones, respectively.

The chemical formula for glucose is C₆H₁₂O₆. In humans, glucose is an important source of energy. During cellular respiration, energy is released from glucose, and that energy is used to help make adenosine triphosphate (ATP). Plants synthesize glucose using carbon dioxide and water, and glucose in turn is used for energy requirements for the plant. Excess glucose is often stored as starch that is catabolized (the breakdown of larger molecules by cells) by humans and other animals that feed on plants.

Galactose (part of lactose, or milk sugar) and fructose (found in sucrose, in fruit) are other common monosaccharides. Although glucose, galactose, and fructose all have the same chemical formula (C₆H₁₂O₆), they differ structurally and chemically (and are known as isomers) because of the different arrangement of functional groups around the asymmetric carbon; all of these monosaccharides have more than one asymmetric carbon ([\[link\]](#)).

Note:

Art Connection

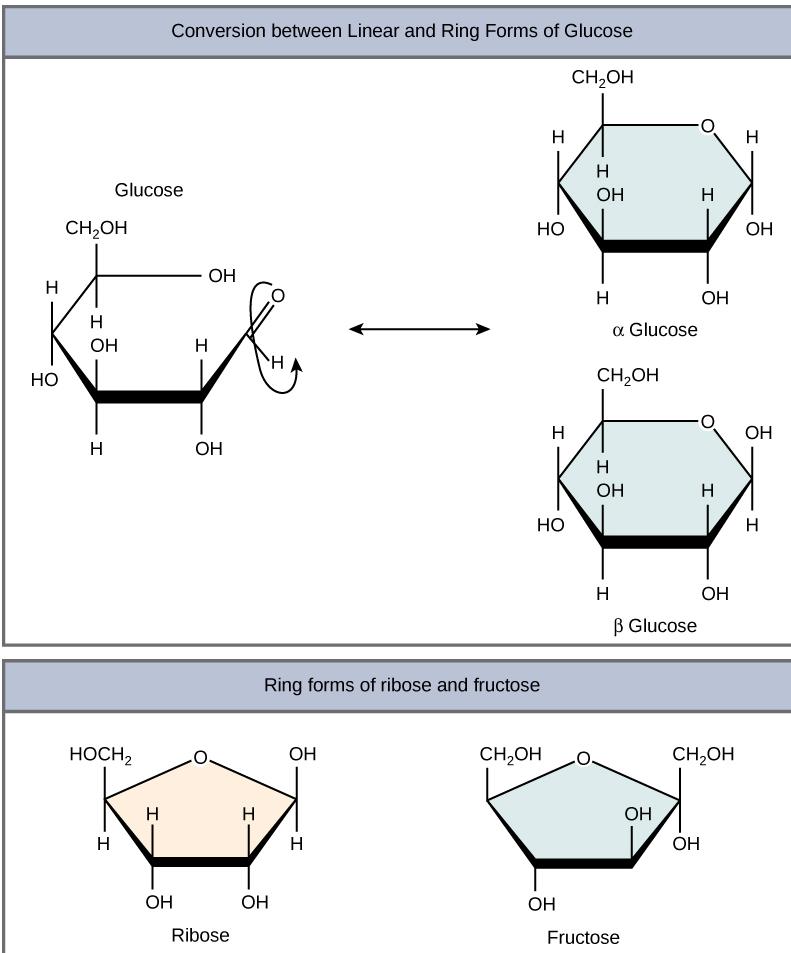


Glucose, galactose, and fructose are all hexoses. They are structural isomers, meaning they have the same chemical formula ($C_6H_{12}O_6$) but a different arrangement of atoms.

What kind of sugars are these, aldose or ketose?

Glucose, galactose, and fructose are isomeric monosaccharides (hexoses), meaning they have the same chemical formula but have slightly different structures. Glucose and galactose are aldoses, and fructose is a ketose.

Monosaccharides can exist as a linear chain or as ring-shaped molecules; in aqueous solutions they are usually found in ring forms ([\[link\]](#)). Glucose in a ring form can have two different arrangements of the hydroxyl group (OH) around the anomeric carbon (carbon 1 that becomes asymmetric in the process of ring formation). If the hydroxyl group is below carbon number 1 in the sugar, it is said to be in the alpha (α) position, and if it is above the plane, it is said to be in the beta (β) position.

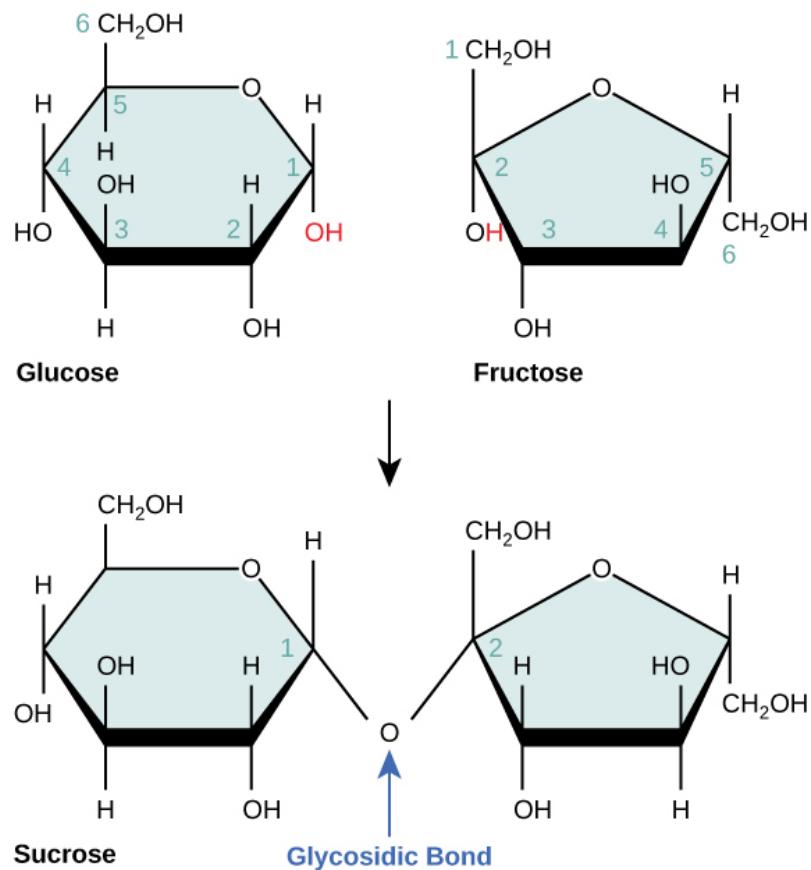


Five and six carbon monosaccharides exist in equilibrium between linear and ring forms. When the ring forms, the side chain it closes on is locked into an α or β position.

Fructose and ribose also form rings, although they form five-membered rings as opposed to the six-membered ring of glucose.

Disaccharides

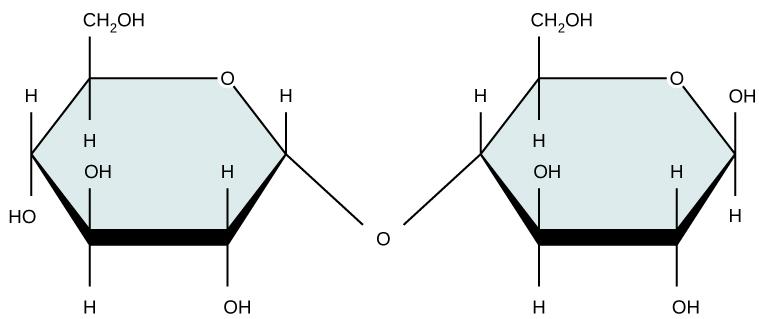
Disaccharides (di- = “two”) form when two monosaccharides undergo a dehydration reaction (also known as a condensation reaction or dehydration synthesis). During this process, the hydroxyl group of one monosaccharide combines with the hydrogen of another monosaccharide, releasing a molecule of water and forming a covalent bond. A covalent bond formed between a carbohydrate molecule and another molecule (in this case, between two monosaccharides) is known as a **glycosidic bond** ([\[link\]](#)). Glycosidic bonds (also called glycosidic linkages) can be of the alpha or the beta type.



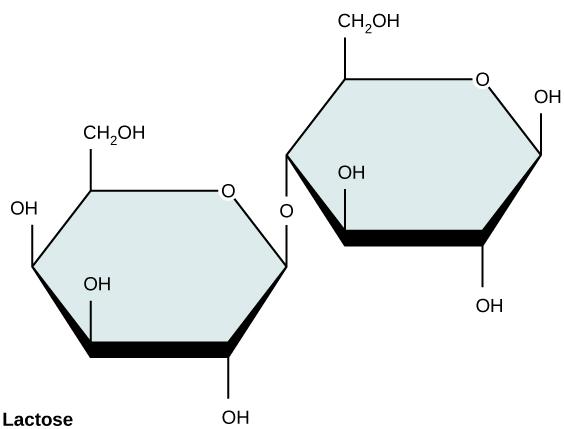
Sucrose is formed when a monomer of glucose and a monomer of fructose are joined in a dehydration reaction to form a glycosidic bond. In the process, a water molecule is lost. By convention, the carbon

atoms in a monosaccharide are numbered from the terminal carbon closest to the carbonyl group. In sucrose, a glycosidic linkage is formed between carbon 1 in glucose and carbon 2 in fructose.

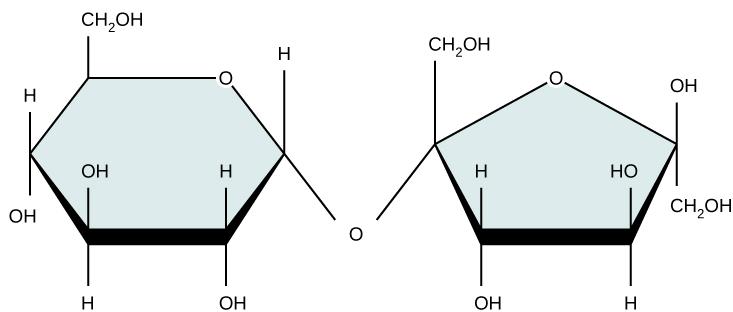
Common disaccharides include lactose, maltose, and sucrose ([\[link\]](#)). Lactose is a disaccharide consisting of the monomers glucose and galactose. It is found naturally in milk. Maltose, or malt sugar, is a disaccharide formed by a dehydration reaction between two glucose molecules. The most common disaccharide is sucrose, or table sugar, which is composed of the monomers glucose and fructose.



Maltose



Lactose



Sucrose

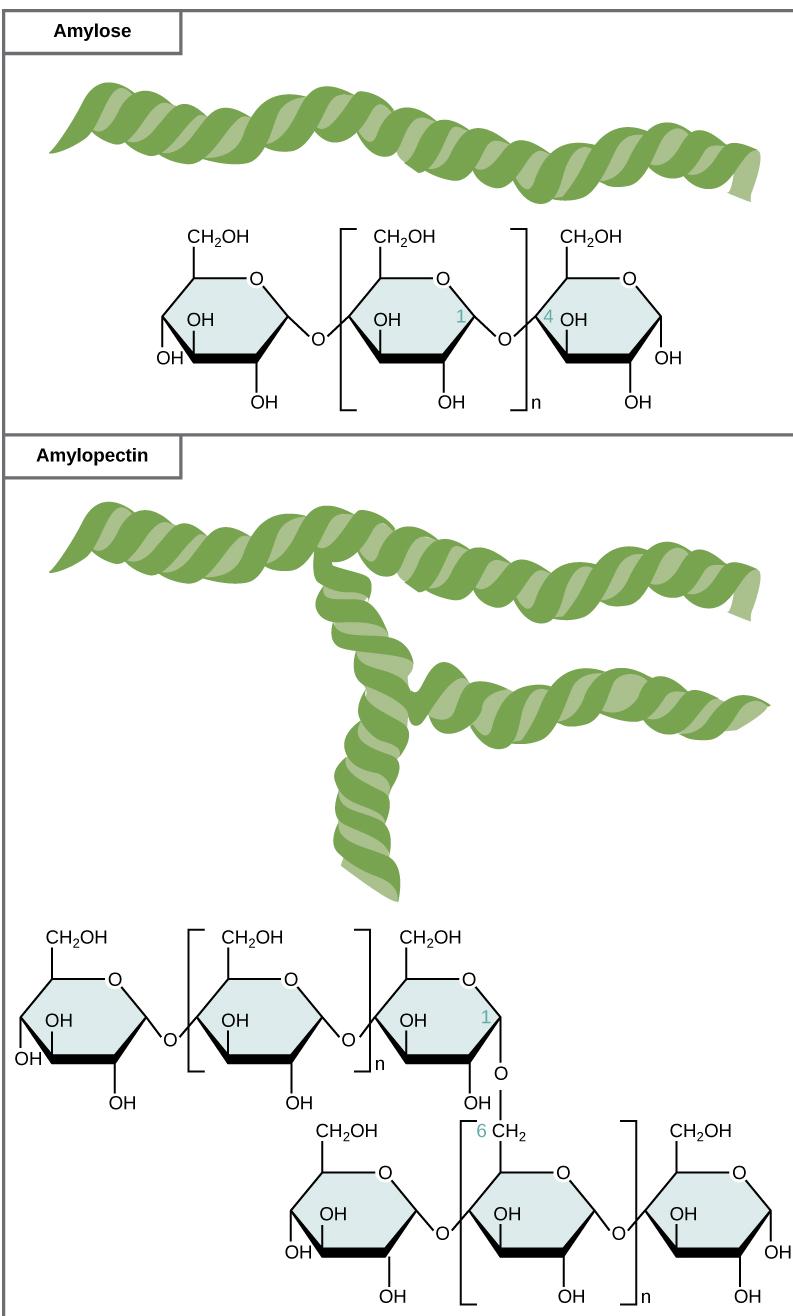
Common disaccharides include maltose (grain sugar), lactose (milk sugar), and sucrose (table sugar).

Polysaccharides

A long chain of monosaccharides linked by glycosidic bonds is known as a **polysaccharide** (poly- = “many”). The chain may be branched or unbranched, and it may contain different types of monosaccharides. The molecular weight may be 100,000 daltons or more depending on the number of monomers joined. Starch, glycogen, cellulose, and chitin are primary examples of polysaccharides.

Starch is the stored form of sugars in plants and is made up of a mixture of amylose and amylopectin (both polymers of glucose). Plants are able to synthesize glucose, and the excess glucose, beyond the plant’s immediate energy needs, is stored as starch in different plant parts, including roots and seeds. The starch in the seeds provides food for the embryo as it germinates and can also act as a source of food for humans and animals. The starch that is consumed by humans is broken down by enzymes, such as salivary amylases, into smaller molecules, such as maltose and glucose. The cells can then absorb the glucose.

Starch is made up of glucose monomers that are joined by α 1-4 or α 1-6 glycosidic bonds. The numbers 1-4 and 1-6 refer to the carbon number of the two residues that have joined to form the bond. As illustrated in [[link](#)], amylose is starch formed by unbranched chains of glucose monomers (only α 1-4 linkages), whereas amylopectin is a branched polysaccharide (α 1-6 linkages at the branch points).



Amylose and amylopectin are two different forms of starch. Amylose is composed of unbranched chains of glucose monomers connected by α 1,4 glycosidic linkages.

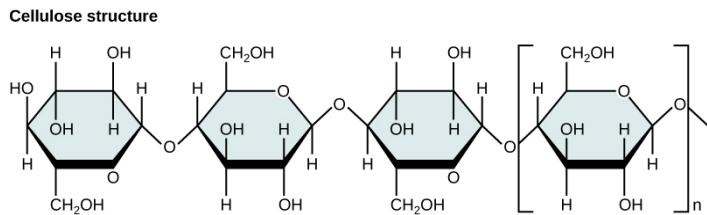
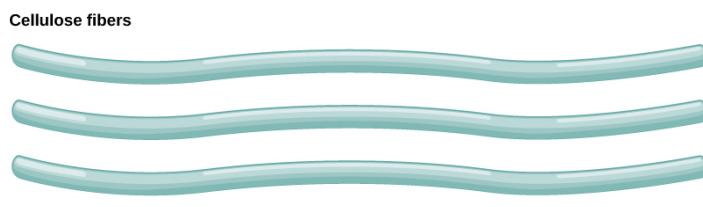
Amylopectin is composed of branched chains of glucose monomers connected by α 1,4 and α 1,6 glycosidic linkages. Because

of the way the subunits are joined, the glucose chains have a helical structure.

Glycogen (not shown) is similar in structure to amylopectin but more highly branched.

Glycogen is the storage form of glucose in humans and other vertebrates and is made up of monomers of glucose. Glycogen is the animal equivalent of starch and is a highly branched molecule usually stored in liver and muscle cells. Whenever blood glucose levels decrease, glycogen is broken down to release glucose in a process known as glycogenolysis.

Cellulose is the most abundant natural biopolymer. The cell wall of plants is mostly made of cellulose; this provides structural support to the cell. Wood and paper are mostly cellulosic in nature. Cellulose is made up of glucose monomers that are linked by β 1-4 glycosidic bonds ([\[link\]](#)).



In cellulose, glucose monomers are linked in unbranched chains by β 1-4 glycosidic linkages. Because of the way the glucose subunits are joined, every glucose monomer is flipped relative to the next one resulting in a linear, fibrous structure.

As shown in [link], every other glucose monomer in cellulose is flipped over, and the monomers are packed tightly as extended long chains. This gives cellulose its rigidity and high tensile strength—which is so important to plant cells. While the β 1-4 linkage cannot be broken down by human digestive enzymes, herbivores such as cows, koalas, and buffalos are able, with the help of the specialized flora in their stomach, to digest plant material that is rich in cellulose and use it as a food source. In these animals, certain species of bacteria and protists reside in the rumen (part of the digestive system of herbivores) and secrete the enzyme cellulase. The appendix of grazing animals also contains bacteria that digest cellulose, giving it an important role in the digestive systems of ruminants. Cellulases can break down cellulose into glucose monomers that can be used as an energy source by the animal. Termites are also able to break down cellulose because of the presence of other organisms in their bodies that secrete cellulases.

Carbohydrates serve various functions in different animals. Arthropods (insects, crustaceans, and others) have an outer skeleton, called the exoskeleton, which protects their internal body parts (as seen in the bee in [link]). This exoskeleton is made of the biological macromolecule **chitin**, which is a polysaccharide-containing nitrogen. It is made of repeating units of N-acetyl- β -d-glucosamine, a modified sugar. Chitin is also a major component of fungal cell walls; fungi are neither animals nor plants and form a kingdom of their own in the domain Eukarya.



Insects have a hard outer exoskeleton made of chitin, a type of polysaccharide. (credit: Louise Docker)

Note:

Career Connections

Registered Dietitian

Obesity is a worldwide health concern, and many diseases such as diabetes and heart disease are becoming more prevalent because of obesity. This is one of the reasons why registered dietitians are increasingly sought after for advice. Registered dietitians help plan nutrition programs for individuals in various settings. They often work with patients in health care facilities, designing nutrition plans to treat and prevent diseases. For example, dietitians may teach a patient with diabetes how to manage blood sugar levels by eating the correct types and amounts of carbohydrates. Dietitians may also work in nursing homes, schools, and private practices. To become a registered dietitian, one needs to earn at least a bachelor's degree in dietetics, nutrition, food technology, or a related field. In addition, registered dietitians must complete a supervised internship.

program and pass a national exam. Those who pursue careers in dietetics take courses in nutrition, chemistry, biochemistry, biology, microbiology, and human physiology. Dietitians must become experts in the chemistry and physiology (biological functions) of food (proteins, carbohydrates, and fats).

Benefits of Carbohydrates

Are carbohydrates good for you? People who wish to lose weight are often told that carbohydrates are bad for them and should be avoided. Some diets completely forbid carbohydrate consumption, claiming that a low-carbohydrate diet helps people to lose weight faster. However, carbohydrates have been an important part of the human diet for thousands of years; artifacts from ancient civilizations show the presence of wheat, rice, and corn in our ancestors' storage areas.

Carbohydrates should be supplemented with proteins, vitamins, and fats to be parts of a well-balanced diet. Calorie-wise, a gram of carbohydrate provides 4.3 Kcal. For comparison, fats provide 9 Kcal/g, a less desirable ratio. Carbohydrates contain soluble and insoluble elements; the insoluble part is known as fiber, which is mostly cellulose. Fiber has many uses; it promotes regular bowel movement by adding bulk, and it regulates the rate of consumption of blood glucose. Fiber also helps to remove excess cholesterol from the body: fiber binds to the cholesterol in the small intestine, then attaches to the cholesterol and prevents the cholesterol particles from entering the bloodstream, and then cholesterol exits the body via the feces. Fiber-rich diets also have a protective role in reducing the occurrence of colon cancer. In addition, a meal containing whole grains and vegetables gives a feeling of fullness. As an immediate source of energy, glucose is broken down during the process of cellular respiration, which produces ATP, the energy currency of the cell. Without the consumption of carbohydrates, the availability of "instant energy" would be reduced. Eliminating carbohydrates from the diet is not the best way to lose weight. A low-calorie diet that is rich in whole grains, fruits, vegetables, and lean

meat, together with plenty of exercise and plenty of water, is the more sensible way to lose weight.

Note:

Link to Learning



For an additional perspective on carbohydrates, explore “Biomolecules: the Carbohydrates” through this [interactive animation](#).

Section Summary

Carbohydrates are a group of macromolecules that are a vital energy source for the cell and provide structural support to plant cells, fungi, and all of the arthropods that include lobsters, crabs, shrimp, insects, and spiders.

Carbohydrates are classified as monosaccharides, disaccharides, and polysaccharides depending on the number of monomers in the molecule. Monosaccharides are linked by glycosidic bonds that are formed as a result of dehydration reactions, forming disaccharides and polysaccharides with the elimination of a water molecule for each bond formed. Glucose, galactose, and fructose are common monosaccharides, whereas common disaccharides include lactose, maltose, and sucrose. Starch and glycogen, examples of polysaccharides, are the storage forms of glucose in plants and animals, respectively. The long polysaccharide chains may be branched or unbranched. Cellulose is an example of an unbranched polysaccharide, whereas amylopectin, a constituent of starch, is a highly branched molecule. Storage of glucose, in the form of polymers like starch or glycogen, makes it slightly less accessible for metabolism; however, this prevents it from

leaking out of the cell or creating a high osmotic pressure that could cause excessive water uptake by the cell.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem: [\[link\]](#) What kind of sugars are these, aldose or ketose?

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) Glucose and galactose are aldoses. Fructose is a ketose.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem: An example of a monosaccharide is _____.

- a. fructose
- b. glucose
- c. galactose
- d. all of the above

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem: Cellulose and starch are examples of:

- a. monosaccharides
- b. disaccharides
- c. lipids

d. polysaccharides

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem:

Plant cell walls contain which of the following in abundance?

- a. starch
- b. cellulose
- c. glycogen
- d. lactose

Solution:

B

Exercise:

Problem:

Lactose is a disaccharide formed by the formation of a _____ bond between glucose and _____.

- a. glycosidic; lactose
- b. glycosidic; galactose
- c. hydrogen; sucrose
- d. hydrogen; fructose

Solution:

B

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem:

Describe the similarities and differences between glycogen and starch.

Solution:

Glycogen and starch are polysaccharides. They are the storage form of glucose. Glycogen is stored in animals in the liver and in muscle cells, whereas starch is stored in the roots, seeds, and leaves of plants. Starch has two different forms, one unbranched (amylose) and one branched (amylopectin), whereas glycogen is a single type of a highly branched molecule.

Exercise:

Problem:

Why is it impossible for humans to digest food that contains cellulose?

Solution:

The β 1-4 glycosidic linkage in cellulose cannot be broken down by human digestive enzymes. Herbivores such as cows, koalas, and buffalos are able to digest grass that is rich in cellulose and use it as a food source because bacteria and protists in their digestive systems, especially in the rumen, secrete the enzyme cellulase. Cellulases can break down cellulose into glucose monomers that can be used as an energy source by the animal.

Glossary

carbohydrate

biological macromolecule in which the ratio of carbon to hydrogen and to oxygen is 1:2:1; carbohydrates serve as energy sources and

structural support in cells and form the a cellular exoskeleton of arthropods

cellulose

polysaccharide that makes up the cell wall of plants; provides structural support to the cell

chitin

type of carbohydrate that forms the outer skeleton of all arthropods that include crustaceans and insects; it also forms the cell walls of fungi

disaccharide

two sugar monomers that are linked together by a glycosidic bond

glycogen

storage carbohydrate in animals

glycosidic bond

bond formed by a dehydration reaction between two monosaccharides with the elimination of a water molecule

monosaccharide

single unit or monomer of carbohydrates

polysaccharide

long chain of monosaccharides; may be branched or unbranched

starch

storage carbohydrate in plants

Lipids

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the four major types of lipids
- Explain the role of fats in storing energy
- Differentiate between saturated and unsaturated fatty acids
- Describe phospholipids and their role in cells
- Define the basic structure of a steroid and some functions of steroids
- Explain the how cholesterol helps to maintain the fluid nature of the plasma membrane

Lipids include a diverse group of compounds that are largely nonpolar in nature. This is because they are hydrocarbons that include mostly nonpolar carbon–carbon or carbon–hydrogen bonds. Non-polar molecules are hydrophobic (“water fearing”), or insoluble in water. Lipids perform many different functions in a cell. Cells store energy for long-term use in the form of fats. Lipids also provide insulation from the environment for plants and animals ([\[link\]](#)). For example, they help keep aquatic birds and mammals dry when forming a protective layer over fur or feathers because of their water-repellant hydrophobic nature. Lipids are also the building blocks of many hormones and are an important constituent of all cellular membranes. Lipids include fats, oils, waxes, phospholipids, and steroids.



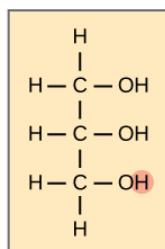
Hydrophobic lipids in the fur of aquatic mammals, such as

this river otter, protect them
from the elements. (credit:
Ken Bosma)

Fats and Oils

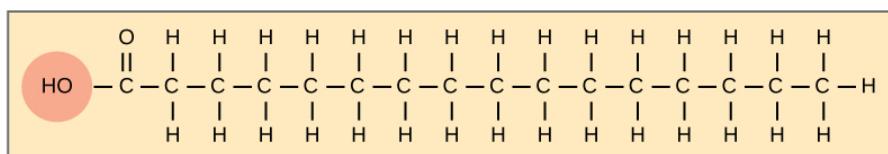
A fat molecule consists of two main components—glycerol and fatty acids. Glycerol is an organic compound (alcohol) with three carbons, five hydrogens, and three hydroxyl (OH) groups. Fatty acids have a long chain of hydrocarbons to which a carboxyl group is attached, hence the name “fatty acid.” The number of carbons in the fatty acid may range from 4 to 36; most common are those containing 12–18 carbons. In a fat molecule, the fatty acids are attached to each of the three carbons of the glycerol molecule with an ester bond through an oxygen atom ([\[link\]](#)).

Glycerol

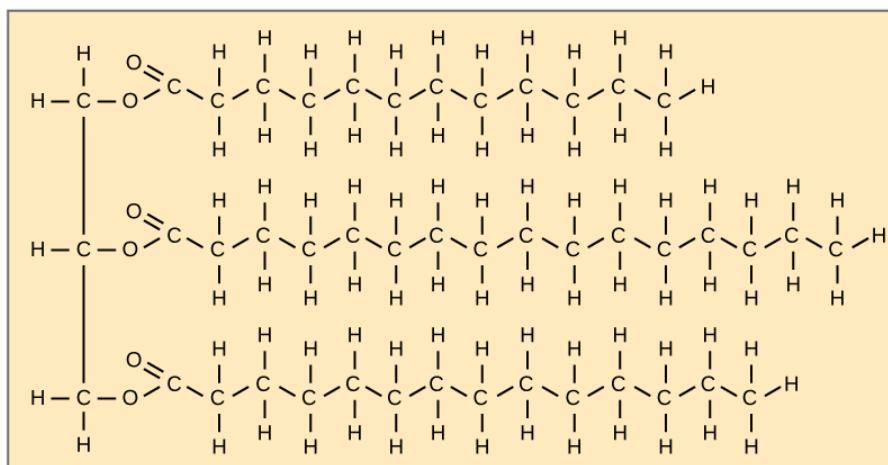


+

Fatty Acid



Triacylglycerol

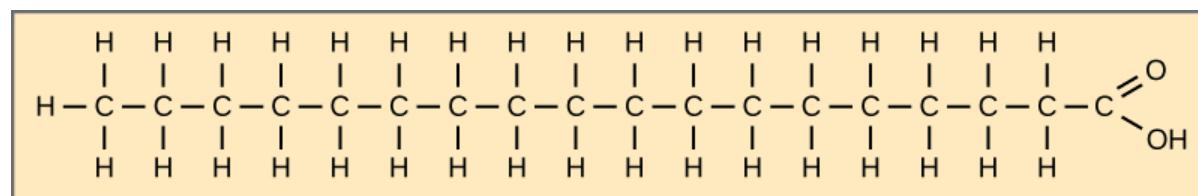


Triacylglycerol is formed by the joining of three fatty acids to a glycerol backbone in a dehydration reaction. Three molecules of water are released in the process.

During this ester bond formation, three water molecules are released. The three fatty acids in the triacylglycerol may be similar or dissimilar. Fats are also called **triacylglycerols** or **triglycerides** because of their chemical

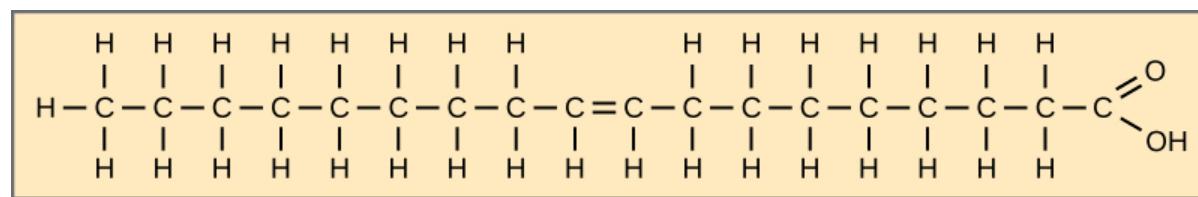
structure. Some fatty acids have common names that specify their origin. For example, palmitic acid, a **saturated fatty acid**, is derived from the palm tree. Arachidic acid is derived from *Arachis hypogea*, the scientific name for groundnuts or peanuts.

Fatty acids may be saturated or unsaturated. In a fatty acid chain, if there are only single bonds between neighboring carbons in the hydrocarbon chain, the fatty acid is said to be saturated. Saturated fatty acids are saturated with hydrogen; in other words, the number of hydrogen atoms attached to the carbon skeleton is maximized. Stearic acid is an example of a saturated fatty acid ([\[link\]](#))



Stearic acid is a common saturated fatty acid.

When the hydrocarbon chain contains a double bond, the fatty acid is said to be **unsaturated**. Oleic acid is an example of an unsaturated fatty acid ([\[link\]](#)).



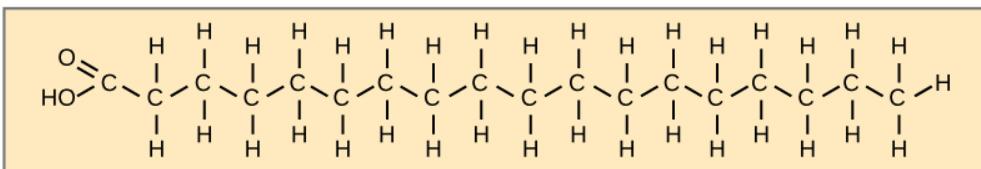
Oleic acid is a common unsaturated fatty acid.

Most unsaturated fats are liquid at room temperature and are called oils. If there is one double bond in the molecule, then it is known as a monounsaturated fat (e.g., olive oil), and if there is more than one double bond, then it is known as a polyunsaturated fat (e.g., canola oil).

When a fatty acid has no double bonds, it is known as a saturated fatty acid because no more hydrogen may be added to the carbon atoms of the chain. A fat may contain similar or different fatty acids attached to glycerol. Long straight fatty acids with single bonds tend to get packed tightly and are solid at room temperature. Animal fats with stearic acid and palmitic acid (common in meat) and the fat with butyric acid (common in butter) are examples of saturated fats. Mammals store fats in specialized cells called adipocytes, where globules of fat occupy most of the cell's volume. In plants, fat or oil is stored in many seeds and is used as a source of energy during seedling development. Unsaturated fats or oils are usually of plant origin and contain *cis* unsaturated fatty acids. *Cis* and *trans* indicate the configuration of the molecule around the double bond. If hydrogens are present in the same plane, it is referred to as a *cis* fat; if the hydrogen atoms are on two different planes, it is referred to as a ***trans* fat**. The *cis* double bond causes a bend or a “kink” that prevents the fatty acids from packing tightly, keeping them liquid at room temperature ([\[link\]](#)). Olive oil, corn oil, canola oil, and cod liver oil are examples of unsaturated fats. Unsaturated fats help to lower blood cholesterol levels whereas saturated fats contribute to plaque formation in the arteries.

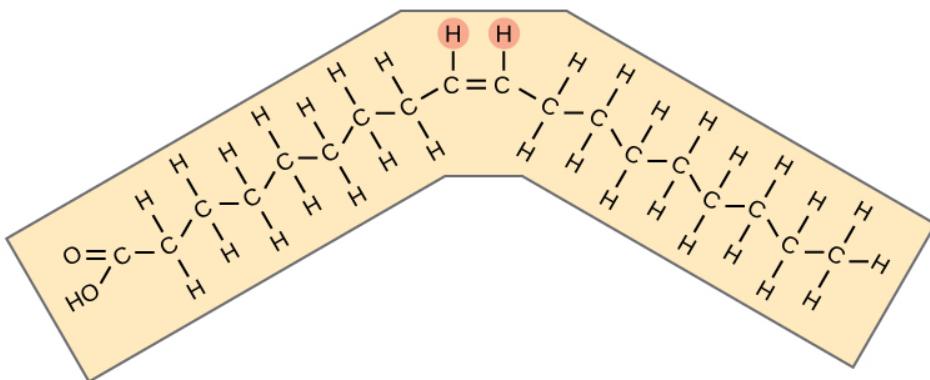
Saturated fatty acid

Stearic acid

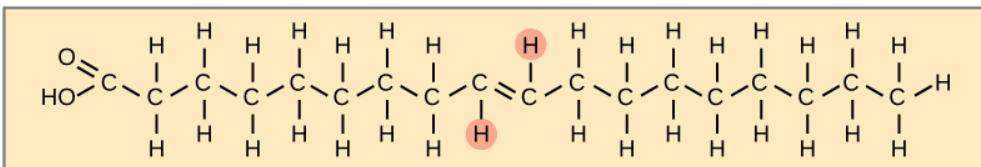


Unsaturated fatty acids

Cis oleic acid



Trans oleic acid



Saturated fatty acids have hydrocarbon chains connected by single bonds only. Unsaturated fatty acids have one or more double bonds. Each double bond may be in a *cis* or *trans* configuration. In the *cis* configuration, both hydrogens are on the same side of the hydrocarbon chain. In the *trans* configuration, the hydrogens are on opposite sides. A *cis* double bond causes a kink in the chain.

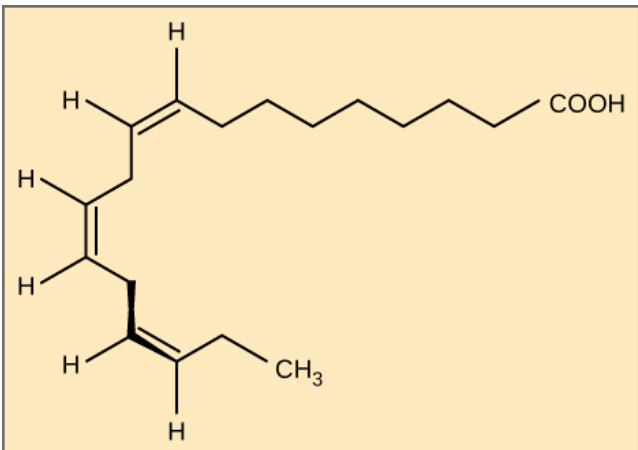
Trans Fats

In the food industry, oils are artificially hydrogenated to make them semi-solid and of a consistency desirable for many processed food products. Simply speaking, hydrogen gas is bubbled through oils to solidify them. During this hydrogenation process, double bonds of the *cis*- conformation in the hydrocarbon chain may be converted to double bonds in the *trans*-conformation.

Margarine, some types of peanut butter, and shortening are examples of artificially hydrogenated trans fats. Recent studies have shown that an increase in trans fats in the human diet may lead to an increase in levels of low-density lipoproteins (LDL), or “bad” cholesterol, which in turn may lead to plaque deposition in the arteries, resulting in heart disease. Many fast food restaurants have recently banned the use of trans fats, and food labels are required to display the trans fat content.

Omega Fatty Acids

Essential fatty acids are fatty acids required but not synthesized by the human body. Consequently, they have to be supplemented through ingestion via the diet. **Omega-3** fatty acids (like that shown in [\[link\]](#)) fall into this category and are one of only two known for humans (the other being omega-6 fatty acid). These are polyunsaturated fatty acids and are called omega-3 because the third carbon from the end of the hydrocarbon chain is connected to its neighboring carbon by a double bond.



Alpha-linolenic acid is an example of an omega-3 fatty acid. It has three *cis* double bonds and, as a result, a curved shape. For clarity, the carbons are not shown. Each singly bonded carbon has two hydrogens associated with it, also not shown.

The farthest carbon away from the carboxyl group is numbered as the omega (ω) carbon, and if the double bond is between the third and fourth carbon from that end, it is known as an omega-3 fatty acid. Nutritionally important because the body does not make them, omega-3 fatty acids include alpha-linoleic acid (ALA), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), all of which are polyunsaturated. Salmon, trout, and tuna are good sources of omega-3 fatty acids. Research indicates that omega-3 fatty acids reduce the risk of sudden death from heart attacks, reduce triglycerides in the blood, lower blood pressure, and prevent thrombosis by inhibiting blood clotting. They also reduce inflammation, and may help reduce the risk of some cancers in animals.

Like carbohydrates, fats have received a lot of bad publicity. It is true that eating an excess of fried foods and other “fatty” foods leads to weight gain. However, fats do have important functions. Many vitamins are fat soluble,

and fats serve as a long-term storage form of fatty acids: a source of energy. They also provide insulation for the body. Therefore, “healthy” fats in moderate amounts should be consumed on a regular basis.

Waxes

Wax covers the feathers of some aquatic birds and the leaf surfaces of some plants. Because of the hydrophobic nature of waxes, they prevent water from sticking on the surface ([\[link\]](#)). Waxes are made up of long fatty acid chains esterified to long-chain alcohols.

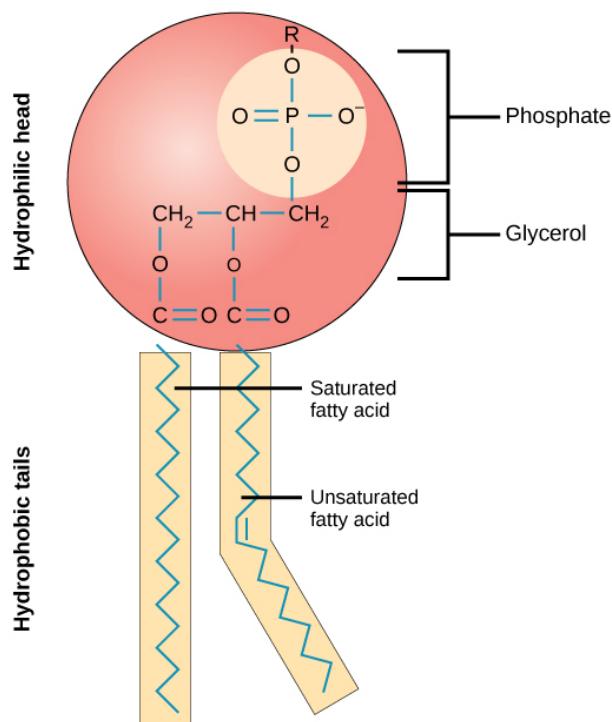


Waxy coverings on some leaves
are made of lipids. (credit: Roger
Griffith)

Phospholipids

Phospholipids are major constituents of the plasma membrane, the outermost layer of animal cells. Like fats, they are composed of fatty acid chains attached to a glycerol or sphingosine backbone. Instead of three fatty acids attached as in triglycerides, however, there are two fatty acids forming

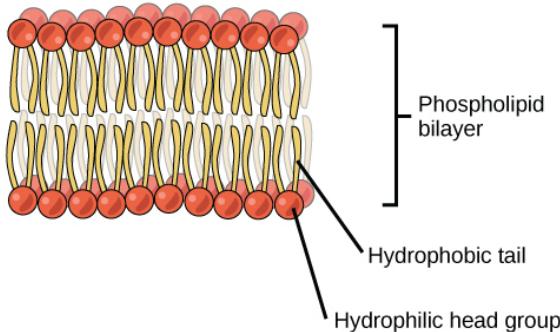
diacylglycerol, and the third carbon of the glycerol backbone is occupied by a modified phosphate group ([\[link\]](#)). A phosphate group alone attached to a diacylglycerol does not qualify as a phospholipid; it is phosphatidate (diacylglycerol 3-phosphate), the precursor of phospholipids. The phosphate group is modified by an alcohol. Phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylserine are two important phospholipids that are found in plasma membranes.



A phospholipid is a molecule with two fatty acids and a modified phosphate group attached to a glycerol backbone. The phosphate may be modified by the addition of charged or polar chemical groups. Two chemical groups that may modify the phosphate, choline and serine, are shown here. Both choline and serine attach to the phosphate group at

the position labeled R via the hydroxyl group indicated in green.

A phospholipid is an amphipathic molecule, meaning it has a hydrophobic and a hydrophilic part. The fatty acid chains are hydrophobic and cannot interact with water, whereas the phosphate-containing group is hydrophilic and interacts with water ([\[link\]](#)).



The phospholipid bilayer is the major component of all cellular membranes. The hydrophilic head groups of the phospholipids face the aqueous solution. The hydrophobic tails are sequestered in the middle of the bilayer.

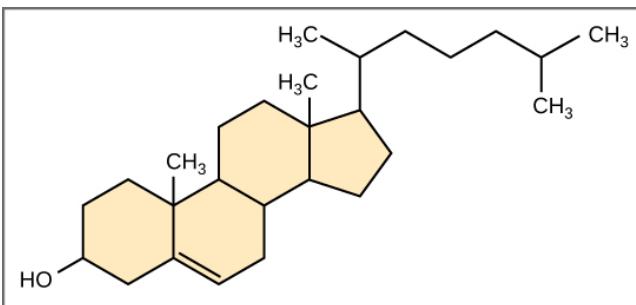
The head is the hydrophilic part, and the tail contains the hydrophobic fatty acids. In a membrane, a bilayer of phospholipids forms the matrix of the structure, the fatty acid tails of phospholipids face inside, away from water, whereas the phosphate group faces the outside, aqueous side ([\[link\]](#)).

Phospholipids are responsible for the dynamic nature of the plasma membrane. If a drop of phospholipids is placed in water, it spontaneously

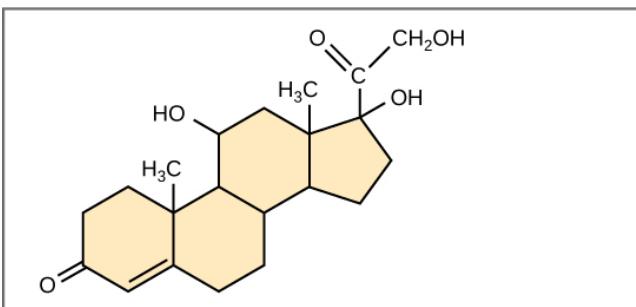
forms a structure known as a micelle, where the hydrophilic phosphate heads face the outside and the fatty acids face the interior of this structure.

Steroids

Unlike the phospholipids and fats discussed earlier, **steroids** have a fused ring structure. Although they do not resemble the other lipids, they are grouped with them because they are also hydrophobic and insoluble in water. All steroids have four linked carbon rings and several of them, like cholesterol, have a short tail ([\[link\]](#)). Many steroids also have the –OH functional group, which puts them in the alcohol classification (sterols).



Cholesterol



Cortisol

Steroids such as cholesterol and cortisol are composed of four fused hydrocarbon rings.

Cholesterol is the most common steroid. Cholesterol is mainly synthesized in the liver and is the precursor to many steroid hormones such as testosterone and estradiol, which are secreted by the gonads and endocrine glands. It is also the precursor to Vitamin D. Cholesterol is also the precursor of bile salts, which help in the emulsification of fats and their subsequent absorption by cells. Although cholesterol is often spoken of in negative terms by lay people, it is necessary for proper functioning of the body. It is a component of the plasma membrane of animal cells and is found within the phospholipid bilayer. Being the outermost structure in animal cells, the plasma membrane is responsible for the transport of materials and cellular recognition and it is involved in cell-to-cell communication.

Note:

Link to Learning



For an additional perspective on lipids, explore the interactive animation
[Biomolecules: The Lipids](#)

Section Summary

Lipids are a class of macromolecules that are nonpolar and hydrophobic in nature. Major types include fats and oils, waxes, phospholipids, and steroids. Fats are a stored form of energy and are also known as triacylglycerols or triglycerides. Fats are made up of fatty acids and either glycerol or sphingosine. Fatty acids may be unsaturated or saturated,

depending on the presence or absence of double bonds in the hydrocarbon chain. If only single bonds are present, they are known as saturated fatty acids. Unsaturated fatty acids may have one or more double bonds in the hydrocarbon chain. Phospholipids make up the matrix of membranes. They have a glycerol or sphingosine backbone to which two fatty acid chains and a phosphate-containing group are attached. Steroids are another class of lipids. Their basic structure has four fused carbon rings. Cholesterol is a type of steroid and is an important constituent of the plasma membrane, where it helps to maintain the fluid nature of the membrane. It is also the precursor of steroid hormones such as testosterone.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem:

Saturated fats have all of the following characteristics except:

- a. they are solid at room temperature
- b. they have single bonds within the carbon chain
- c. they are usually obtained from animal sources
- d. they tend to dissolve in water easily

Solution:

D

Exercise:

Problem: Phospholipids are important components of _____.

- a. the plasma membrane of animal cells
- b. the ring structure of steroids
- c. the waxy covering on leaves
- d. the double bond in hydrocarbon chains

Solution:

A

Free Response**Exercise:****Problem:**

Explain at least three functions that lipids serve in plants and/or animals.

Solution:

Fat serves as a valuable way for animals to store energy. It can also provide insulation. Waxes can protect plant leaves and mammalian fur from getting wet. Phospholipids and steroids are important components of animal cell membranes, as well as plant, fungal, and bacterial membranes.

Exercise:**Problem:**

Why have trans fats been banned from some restaurants? How are they created?

Solution:

Trans fats are created artificially when hydrogen gas is bubbled through oils to solidify them. The double bonds of the *cis* conformation in the hydrocarbon chain may be converted to double bonds in the *trans* configuration. Some restaurants are banning trans fats because they cause higher levels of LDL, or “bad” cholesterol.

Glossary

lipid

macromolecule that is nonpolar and insoluble in water

omega fat

type of polyunsaturated fat that is required by the body; the numbering of the carbon omega starts from the methyl end or the end that is farthest from the carboxylic end

phospholipid

major constituent of the membranes; composed of two fatty acids and a phosphate-containing group attached to a glycerol backbone

saturated fatty acid

long-chain of hydrocarbon with single covalent bonds in the carbon chain; the number of hydrogen atoms attached to the carbon skeleton is maximized

steroid

type of lipid composed of four fused hydrocarbon rings forming a planar structure

trans fat

fat formed artificially by hydrogenating oils, leading to a different arrangement of double bond(s) than those found in naturally occurring lipids

triacylglycerol (also, triglyceride)

fat molecule; consists of three fatty acids linked to a glycerol molecule

unsaturated fatty acid

long-chain hydrocarbon that has one or more double bonds in the hydrocarbon chain

wax

lipid made of a long-chain fatty acid that is esterified to a long-chain alcohol; serves as a protective coating on some feathers, aquatic mammal fur, and leaves

Proteins

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the functions proteins perform in the cell and in tissues
- Discuss the relationship between amino acids and proteins
- Explain the four levels of protein organization
- Describe the ways in which protein shape and function are linked

Proteins are one of the most abundant organic molecules in living systems and have the most diverse range of functions of all macromolecules.

Proteins may be structural, regulatory, contractile, or protective; they may serve in transport, storage, or membranes; or they may be toxins or enzymes. Each cell in a living system may contain thousands of proteins, each with a unique function. Their structures, like their functions, vary greatly. They are all, however, polymers of amino acids, arranged in a linear sequence.

Types and Functions of Proteins

Enzymes, which are produced by living cells, are catalysts in biochemical reactions (like digestion) and are usually complex or conjugated proteins. Each enzyme is specific for the substrate (a reactant that binds to an enzyme) it acts on. The enzyme may help in breakdown, rearrangement, or synthesis reactions. Enzymes that break down their substrates are called catabolic enzymes, enzymes that build more complex molecules from their substrates are called anabolic enzymes, and enzymes that affect the rate of reaction are called catalytic enzymes. It should be noted that all enzymes increase the rate of reaction and, therefore, are considered to be organic catalysts. An example of an enzyme is salivary amylase, which hydrolyzes its substrate amylose, a component of starch.

Hormones are chemical-signaling molecules, usually small proteins or steroids, secreted by endocrine cells that act to control or regulate specific physiological processes, including growth, development, metabolism, and reproduction. For example, insulin is a protein hormone that helps to regulate the blood glucose level. The primary types and functions of proteins are listed in [\[link\]](#).

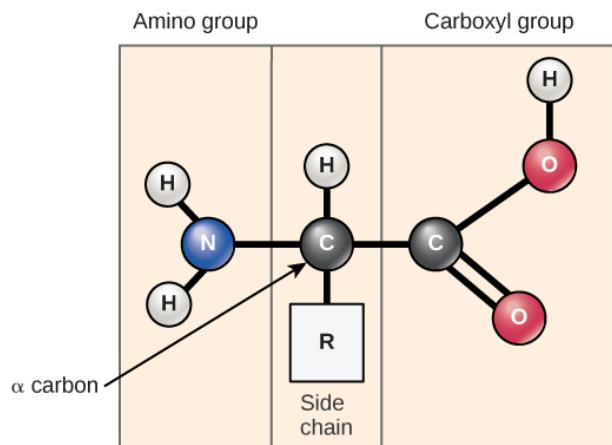
Protein Types and Functions

Type	Examples	Functions
Digestive Enzymes	Amylase, lipase, pepsin, trypsin	Help in digestion of food by catabolizing nutrients into monomeric units
Transport	Hemoglobin, albumin	Carry substances in the blood or lymph throughout the body
Structural	Actin, tubulin, keratin	Construct different structures, like the cytoskeleton
Hormones	Insulin, thyroxine	Coordinate the activity of different body systems
Defense	Immunoglobulins	Protect the body from foreign pathogens
Contractile	Actin, myosin	Effect muscle contraction
Storage	Legume storage proteins, egg white (albumin)	Provide nourishment in early development of the embryo and the seedling

Proteins have different shapes and molecular weights; some proteins are globular in shape whereas others are fibrous in nature. For example, hemoglobin is a globular protein, but collagen, found in our skin, is a fibrous protein. Protein shape is critical to its function, and this shape is maintained by many different types of chemical bonds. Changes in temperature, pH, and exposure to chemicals may lead to permanent changes in the shape of the protein, leading to loss of function, known as **denaturation**. All proteins are made up of different arrangements of the same 20 types of amino acids.

Amino Acids

Amino acids are the monomers that make up proteins. Each amino acid has the same fundamental structure, which consists of a central carbon atom, also known as the alpha (α) carbon, bonded to an amino group (NH_2), a carboxyl group (COOH), and to a hydrogen atom. Every amino acid also has another atom or group of atoms bonded to the central atom known as the R group ([\[link\]](#)).

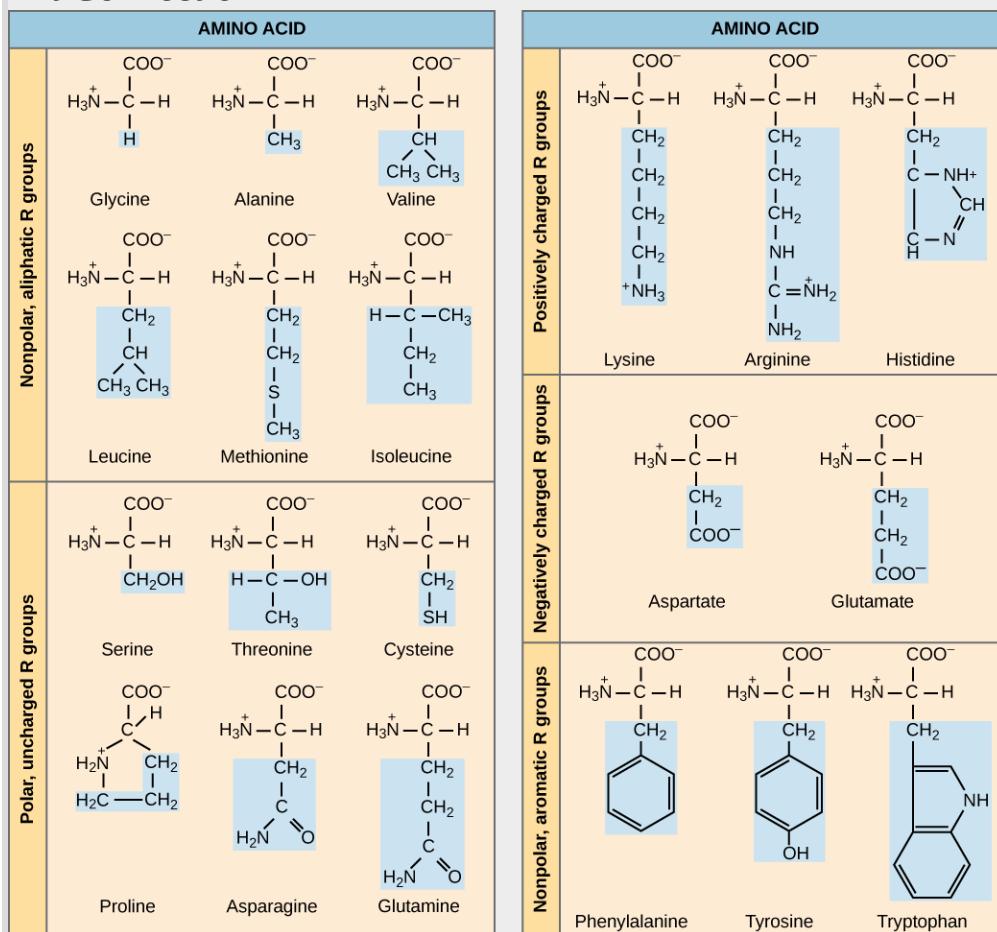


Amino acids have a central asymmetric carbon to which an amino group, a carboxyl group, a hydrogen atom, and a side chain (R group) are attached.

The name "amino acid" is derived from the fact that they contain both amino group and carboxyl-acid-group in their basic structure. As mentioned, there are 20 amino acids present in proteins. Nine of these are considered essential amino acids in humans because the human body cannot produce them and they are obtained from the diet. For each amino acid, the R group (or side chain) is different ([\[link\]](#)).

Note:

Art Connection



There are 20 common amino acids commonly found in proteins, each with a different R group (variant group) that determines its chemical nature.

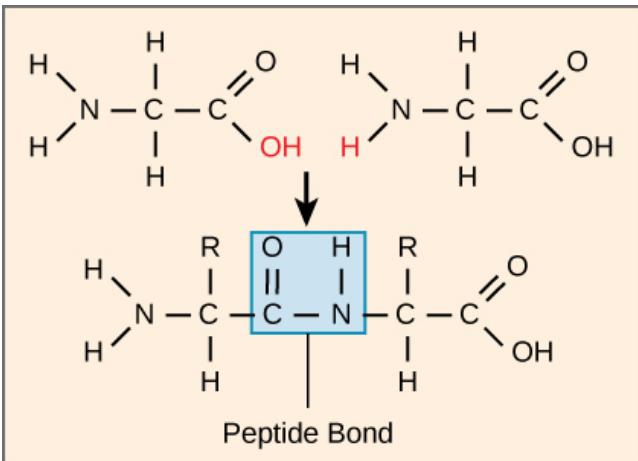
Which categories of amino acid would you expect to find on the surface of a soluble protein, and which would you expect to find in the interior? What distribution of amino acids would you expect to find in a protein embedded in a lipid bilayer?

The chemical nature of the side chain determines the nature of the amino acid (that is, whether it is acidic, basic, polar, or nonpolar). For example, the

amino acid glycine has a hydrogen atom as the R group. Amino acids such as valine, methionine, and alanine are nonpolar or hydrophobic in nature, while amino acids such as serine, threonine, and cysteine are polar and have hydrophilic side chains. The side chains of lysine and arginine are positively charged, and therefore these amino acids are also known as basic amino acids. Proline has an R group that is linked to the amino group, forming a ring-like structure. Proline is an exception to the standard structure of an amino acid since its amino group is not separate from the side chain ([\[link\]](#)).

Amino acids are represented by a single upper case letter or a three-letter abbreviation. For example, valine is known by the letter V or the three-letter symbol val. Just as some fatty acids are essential to a diet, some amino acids are necessary as well. They are known as essential amino acids, and in humans they include isoleucine, leucine, and cysteine. Essential amino acids refer to those necessary for construction of proteins in the body, although not produced by the body; which amino acids are essential varies from organism to organism.

The sequence and the number of amino acids ultimately determine the protein's shape, size, and function. Each amino acid is attached to another amino acid by a covalent bond, known as a **peptide bond**, which is formed by a dehydration reaction. The carboxyl group of one amino acid and the amino group of the incoming amino acid combine, releasing a molecule of water. The resulting bond is the peptide bond ([\[link\]](#)).



Peptide bond formation is a dehydration synthesis reaction. The carboxyl group of one amino acid is linked to the amino group of the incoming amino acid. In the process, a molecule of water is released.

The products formed by such linkages are called peptides. As more amino acids join to this growing chain, the resulting chain is known as a polypeptide. Each polypeptide has a free amino group at one end. This end is called the N terminal, or the amino terminal, and the other end has a free carboxyl group, also known as the C or carboxyl terminal. While the terms polypeptide and protein are sometimes used interchangeably, a polypeptide is technically a polymer of amino acids, whereas the term protein is used for a polypeptide or polypeptides that have combined together, often have bound non-peptide prosthetic groups, have a distinct shape, and have a unique function. After protein synthesis (translation), most proteins are modified. These are known as post-translational modifications. They may undergo cleavage, phosphorylation, or may require the addition of other chemical groups. Only after these modifications is the protein completely functional.

Note:

Link to Learning



Click through the steps of protein synthesis in this [interactive tutorial](#).

Note:

Evolution Connection

The Evolutionary Significance of Cytochrome c

Cytochrome c is an important component of the electron transport chain, a part of cellular respiration, and it is normally found in the cellular organelle, the mitochondrion. This protein has a heme prosthetic group, and the central ion of the heme gets alternately reduced and oxidized during electron transfer. Because this essential protein's role in producing cellular energy is crucial, it has changed very little over millions of years. Protein sequencing has shown that there is a considerable amount of cytochrome c amino acid sequence homology among different species; in other words, evolutionary kinship can be assessed by measuring the similarities or differences among various species' DNA or protein sequences.

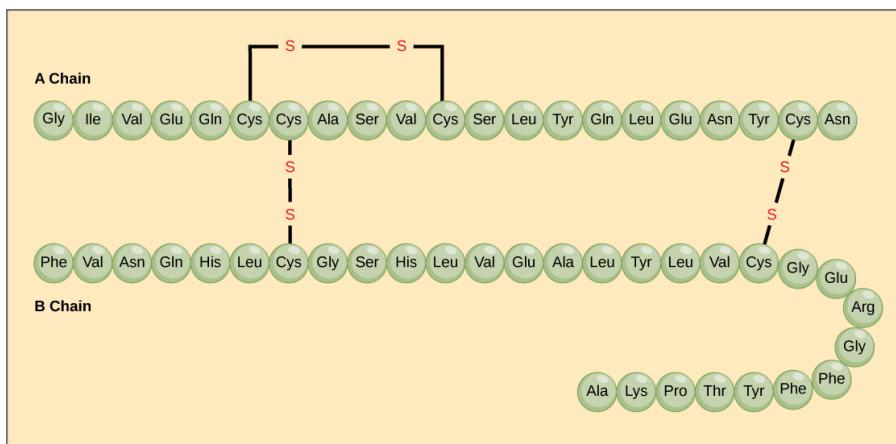
Scientists have determined that human cytochrome c contains 104 amino acids. For each cytochrome c molecule from different organisms that has been sequenced to date, 37 of these amino acids appear in the same position in all samples of cytochrome c. This indicates that there may have been a common ancestor. On comparing the human and chimpanzee protein sequences, no sequence difference was found. When human and rhesus monkey sequences were compared, the single difference found was in one amino acid. In another comparison, human to yeast sequencing shows a difference in the 44th position.

Protein Structure

As discussed earlier, the shape of a protein is critical to its function. For example, an enzyme can bind to a specific substrate at a site known as the active site. If this active site is altered because of local changes or changes in overall protein structure, the enzyme may be unable to bind to the substrate. To understand how the protein gets its final shape or conformation, we need to understand the four levels of protein structure: primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary.

Primary Structure

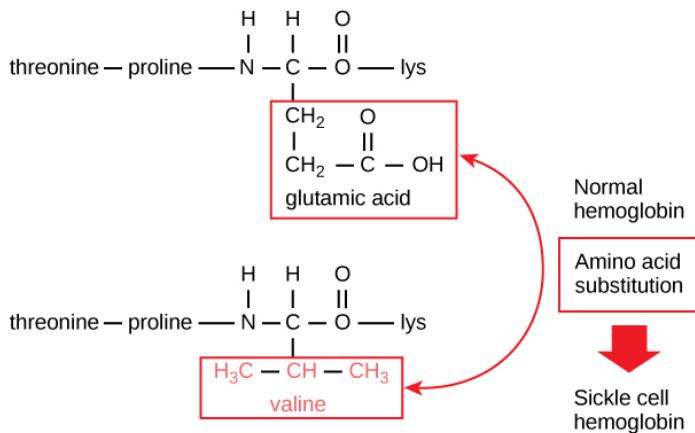
The unique sequence of amino acids in a polypeptide chain is its **primary structure**. For example, the pancreatic hormone insulin has two polypeptide chains, A and B, and they are linked together by disulfide bonds. The N terminal amino acid of the A chain is glycine, whereas the C terminal amino acid is asparagine ([\[link\]](#)). The sequences of amino acids in the A and B chains are unique to insulin.



Bovine serum insulin is a protein hormone made of two peptide chains, A (21 amino acids long) and B (30 amino acids long). In each chain, primary structure is indicated by three-letter abbreviations

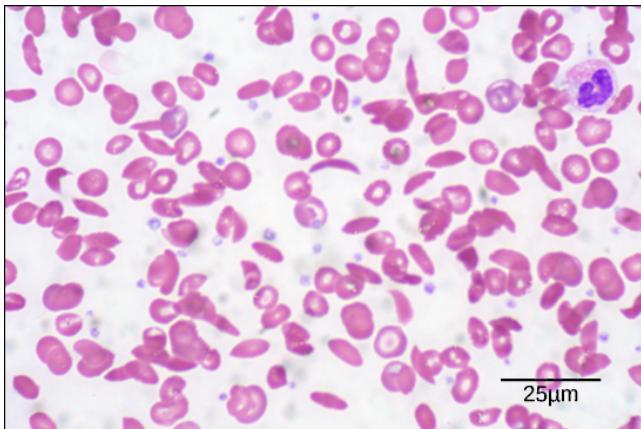
that represent the names of the amino acids in the order they are present. The amino acid cysteine (cys) has a sulfhydryl (SH) group as a side chain. Two sulfhydryl groups can react in the presence of oxygen to form a disulfide (S-S) bond. Two disulfide bonds connect the A and B chains together, and a third helps the A chain fold into the correct shape. Note that all disulfide bonds are the same length, but are drawn different sizes for clarity.

The unique sequence for every protein is ultimately determined by the gene encoding the protein. A change in nucleotide sequence of the gene's coding region may lead to a different amino acid being added to the growing polypeptide chain, causing a change in protein structure and function. In sickle cell anemia, the hemoglobin β chain (a small portion of which is shown in [\[link\]](#)) has a single amino acid substitution, causing a change in protein structure and function. Specifically, the amino acid glutamic acid is substituted by valine in the β chain. What is most remarkable to consider is that a hemoglobin molecule is made up of two alpha chains and two beta chains that each consist of about 150 amino acids. The molecule, therefore, has about 600 amino acids. The structural difference between a normal hemoglobin molecule and a sickle cell molecule—which dramatically decreases life expectancy—is a single amino acid of the 600. What is even more remarkable is that those 600 amino acids are encoded by three nucleotides each, and the mutation is caused by a single base change (point mutation), 1 in 1800 bases.



The beta chain of hemoglobin is 147 residues in length, yet a single amino acid substitution leads to sickle cell anemia. In normal hemoglobin, the amino acid at position seven is glutamate. In sickle cell hemoglobin, this glutamate is replaced by a valine.

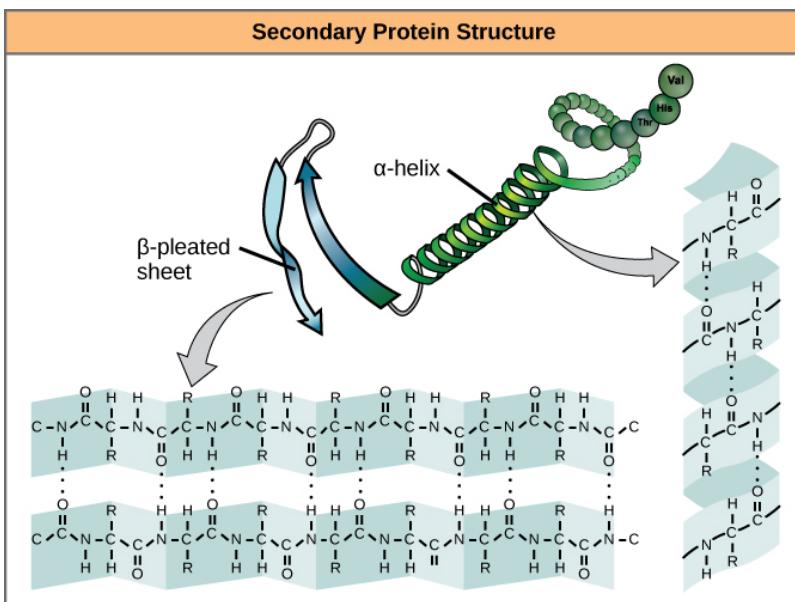
Because of this change of one amino acid in the chain, hemoglobin molecules form long fibers that distort the biconcave, or disc-shaped, red blood cells and assume a crescent or “sickle” shape, which clogs arteries ([\[link\]](#)). This can lead to myriad serious health problems such as breathlessness, dizziness, headaches, and abdominal pain for those affected by this disease.



In this blood smear, visualized at 535x magnification using bright field microscopy, sickle cells are crescent shaped, while normal cells are disc-shaped. (credit: modification of work by Ed Uthman; scale-bar data from Matt Russell)

Secondary Structure

The local folding of the polypeptide in some regions gives rise to the **secondary structure** of the protein. The most common are the **α -helix** and **β -pleated sheet** structures ([\[Link\]](#)). Both structures are the α -helix structure—the helix held in shape by hydrogen bonds. The hydrogen bonds form between the oxygen atom in the carbonyl group in one amino acid and another amino acid that is four amino acids farther along the chain.

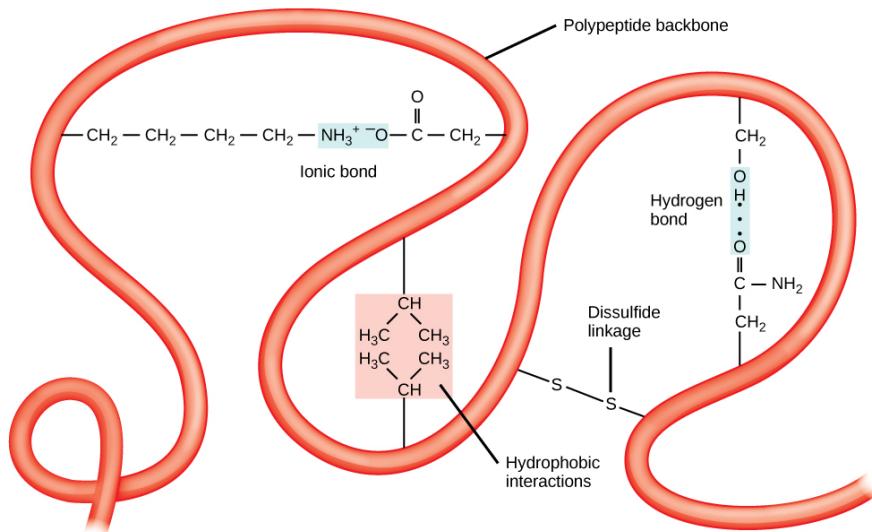


The α -helix and β -pleated sheet are secondary structures of proteins that form because of hydrogen bonding between carbonyl and amino groups in the peptide backbone. Certain amino acids have a propensity to form an α -helix, while others have a propensity to form a β -pleated sheet.

Every helical turn in an alpha helix has 3.6 amino acid residues. The R groups (the variant groups) of the polypeptide protrude out from the α -helix chain. In the β -pleated sheet, the “pleats” are formed by hydrogen bonding between atoms on the backbone of the polypeptide chain. The R groups are attached to the carbons and extend above and below the folds of the pleat. The pleated segments align parallel or antiparallel to each other, and hydrogen bonds form between the partially positive nitrogen atom in the amino group and the partially negative oxygen atom in the carbonyl group of the peptide backbone. The α -helix and β -pleated sheet structures are found in most globular and fibrous proteins and they play an important structural role.

Tertiary Structure

The unique three-dimensional structure of a polypeptide is its **tertiary structure** ([\[link\]](#)). This structure is in part due to chemical interactions at work on the polypeptide chain. Primarily, the interactions among R groups creates the complex three-dimensional tertiary structure of a protein. The nature of the R groups found in the amino acids involved can counteract the formation of the hydrogen bonds described for standard secondary structures. For example, R groups with like charges are repelled by each other and those with unlike charges are attracted to each other (ionic bonds). When protein folding takes place, the hydrophobic R groups of nonpolar amino acids lay in the interior of the protein, whereas the hydrophilic R groups lay on the outside. The former types of interactions are also known as hydrophobic interactions. Interaction between cysteine side chains forms disulfide linkages in the presence of oxygen, the only covalent bond forming during protein folding.



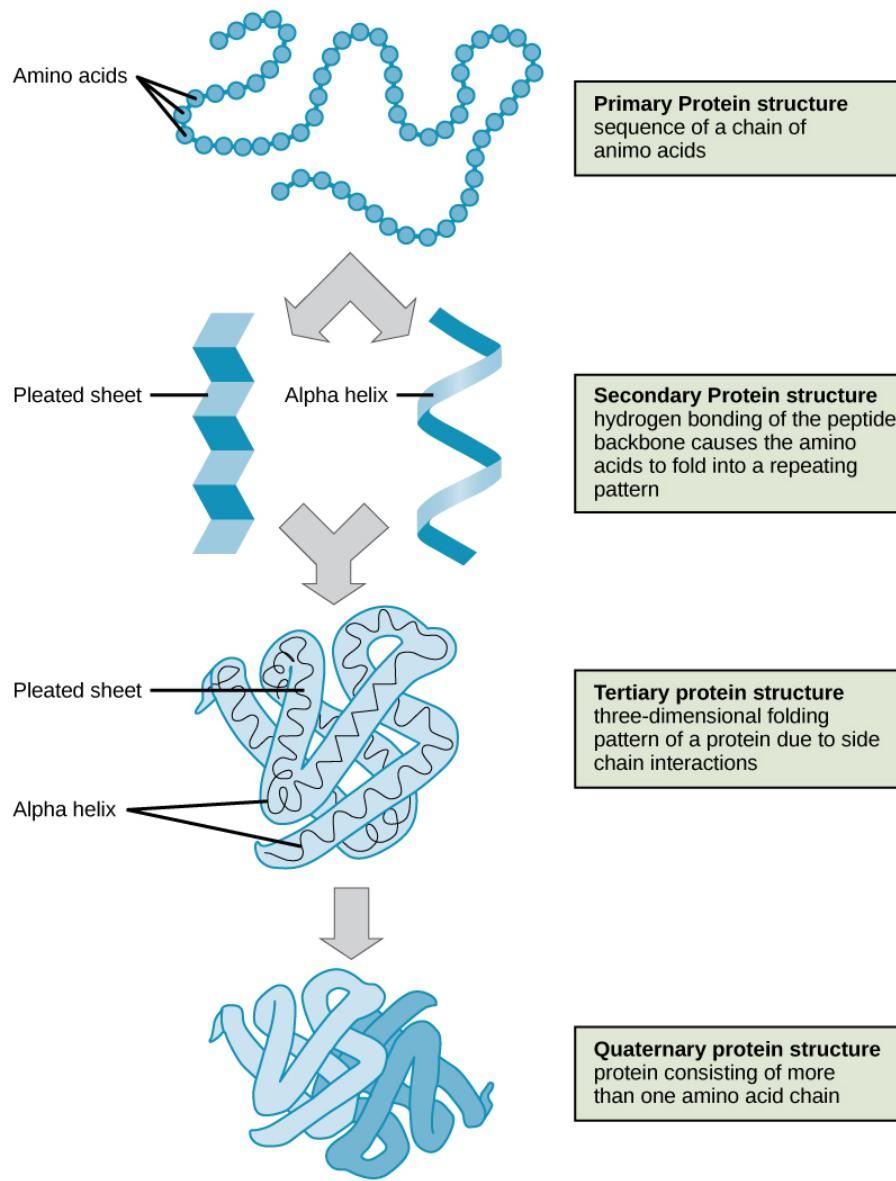
The tertiary structure of proteins is determined by a variety of chemical interactions. These include hydrophobic interactions, ionic bonding, hydrogen bonding and disulfide linkages.

All of these interactions, weak and strong, determine the final three-dimensional shape of the protein. When a protein loses its three-dimensional shape, it may no longer be functional.

Quaternary Structure

In nature, some proteins are formed from several polypeptides, also known as subunits, and the interaction of these subunits forms the **quaternary structure**. Weak interactions between the subunits help to stabilize the overall structure. For example, insulin (a globular protein) has a combination of hydrogen bonds and disulfide bonds that cause it to be mostly clumped into a ball shape. Insulin starts out as a single polypeptide and loses some internal sequences in the presence of post-translational modification after the formation of the disulfide linkages that hold the remaining chains together. Silk (a fibrous protein), however, has a β -pleated sheet structure that is the result of hydrogen bonding between different chains.

The four levels of protein structure (primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary) are illustrated in [\[link\]](#).



The four levels of protein structure can be observed in these illustrations. (credit: modification of work by National Human Genome Research Institute)

Denaturation and Protein Folding

Each protein has its own unique sequence and shape that are held together by chemical interactions. If the protein is subject to changes in temperature, pH, or exposure to chemicals, the protein structure may change, losing its shape without losing its primary sequence in what is known as denaturation. Denaturation is often reversible because the primary structure of the polypeptide is conserved in the process if the denaturing agent is removed, allowing the protein to resume its function. Sometimes denaturation is irreversible, leading to loss of function. One example of irreversible protein denaturation is when an egg is fried. The albumin protein in the liquid egg white is denatured when placed in a hot pan. Not all proteins are denatured at high temperatures; for instance, bacteria that survive in hot springs have proteins that function at temperatures close to boiling. The stomach is also very acidic, has a low pH, and denatures proteins as part of the digestion process; however, the digestive enzymes of the stomach retain their activity under these conditions.

Protein folding is critical to its function. It was originally thought that the proteins themselves were responsible for the folding process. Only recently was it found that often they receive assistance in the folding process from protein helpers known as **chaperones** (or chaperonins) that associate with the target protein during the folding process. They act by preventing aggregation of polypeptides that make up the complete protein structure, and they disassociate from the protein once the target protein is folded.

Note:

Link to Learning



For an additional perspective on proteins, view [this animation](#) called “Biomolecules: The Proteins.”

Section Summary

Proteins are a class of macromolecules that perform a diverse range of functions for the cell. They help in metabolism by providing structural support and by acting as enzymes, carriers, or hormones. The building blocks of proteins (monomers) are amino acids. Each amino acid has a central carbon that is linked to an amino group, a carboxyl group, a hydrogen atom, and an R group or side chain. There are 20 commonly occurring amino acids, each of which differs in the R group. Each amino acid is linked to its neighbors by a peptide bond. A long chain of amino acids is known as a polypeptide.

Proteins are organized at four levels: primary, secondary, tertiary, and (optional) quaternary. The primary structure is the unique sequence of amino acids. The local folding of the polypeptide to form structures such as the α helix and β -pleated sheet constitutes the secondary structure. The overall three-dimensional structure is the tertiary structure. When two or more polypeptides combine to form the complete protein structure, the configuration is known as the quaternary structure of a protein. Protein shape and function are intricately linked; any change in shape caused by changes in temperature or pH may lead to protein denaturation and a loss in function.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem:

[\[link\]](#) Which categories of amino acid would you expect to find on the surface of a soluble protein, and which would you expect to find in the interior? What distribution of amino acids would you expect to find in a protein embedded in a lipid bilayer?

Solution:

[\[link\]](#) Polar and charged amino acid residues (the remainder after peptide bond formation) are more likely to be found on the surface of

soluble proteins where they can interact with water, and nonpolar (e.g., amino acid side chains) are more likely to be found in the interior where they are sequestered from water. In membrane proteins, nonpolar and hydrophobic amino acid side chains associate with the hydrophobic tails of phospholipids, while polar and charged amino acid side chains interact with the polar head groups or with the aqueous solution. However, there are exceptions. Sometimes, positively and negatively charged amino acid side chains interact with one another in the interior of a protein, and polar or charged amino acid side chains that interact with a ligand can be found in the ligand binding pocket.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem: The monomers that make up proteins are called _____.

- a. nucleotides
- b. disaccharides
- c. amino acids
- d. chaperones

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem:

The α helix and the β -pleated sheet are part of which protein structure?

- a. primary
- b. secondary
- c. tertiary
- d. quaternary

Solution:

B

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem:

Explain what happens if even one amino acid is substituted for another in a polypeptide chain. Provide a specific example.

Solution:

A change in gene sequence can lead to a different amino acid being added to a polypeptide chain instead of the normal one. This causes a change in protein structure and function. For example, in sickle cell anemia, the hemoglobin β chain has a single amino acid substitution—the amino acid glutamic acid in position six is substituted by valine. Because of this change, hemoglobin molecules form aggregates, and the disc-shaped red blood cells assume a crescent shape, which results in serious health problems.

Exercise:

Problem: Describe the differences in the four protein structures.

Solution:

The sequence and number of amino acids in a polypeptide chain is its primary structure. The local folding of the polypeptide in some regions is the secondary structure of the protein. The three-dimensional structure of a polypeptide is known as its tertiary structure, created in part by chemical interactions such as hydrogen bonds between polar side chains, van der Waals interactions, disulfide linkages, and

hydrophobic interactions. Some proteins are formed from multiple polypeptides, also known as subunits, and the interaction of these subunits forms the quaternary structure.

Glossary

alpha-helix structure (α -helix)

type of secondary structure of proteins formed by folding of the polypeptide into a helix shape with hydrogen bonds stabilizing the structure

amino acid

monomer of a protein; has a central carbon or alpha carbon to which an amino group, a carboxyl group, a hydrogen, and an R group or side chain is attached; the R group is different for all 20 amino acids

beta-pleated sheet (β -pleated)

secondary structure found in proteins in which “pleats” are formed by hydrogen bonding between atoms on the backbone of the polypeptide chain

chaperone

(also, chaperonin) protein that helps nascent protein in the folding process

denaturation

loss of shape in a protein as a result of changes in temperature, pH, or exposure to chemicals

enzyme

catalyst in a biochemical reaction that is usually a complex or conjugated protein

hormone

chemical signaling molecule, usually protein or steroid, secreted by endocrine cells that act to control or regulate specific physiological processes

peptide bond

bond formed between two amino acids by a dehydration reaction

polypeptide

long chain of amino acids linked by peptide bonds

primary structure

linear sequence of amino acids in a protein

protein

biological macromolecule composed of one or more chains of amino acids

quaternary structure

association of discrete polypeptide subunits in a protein

secondary structure

regular structure formed by proteins by intramolecular hydrogen bonding between the oxygen atom of one amino acid residue and the hydrogen attached to the nitrogen atom of another amino acid residue

tertiary structure

three-dimensional conformation of a protein, including interactions between secondary structural elements; formed from interactions between amino acid side chains

Nucleic Acids

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the structure of nucleic acids and define the two types of nucleic acids
- Explain the structure and role of DNA
- Explain the structure and roles of RNA

Nucleic acids are the most important macromolecules for the continuity of life. They carry the genetic blueprint of a cell and carry instructions for the functioning of the cell.

DNA and RNA

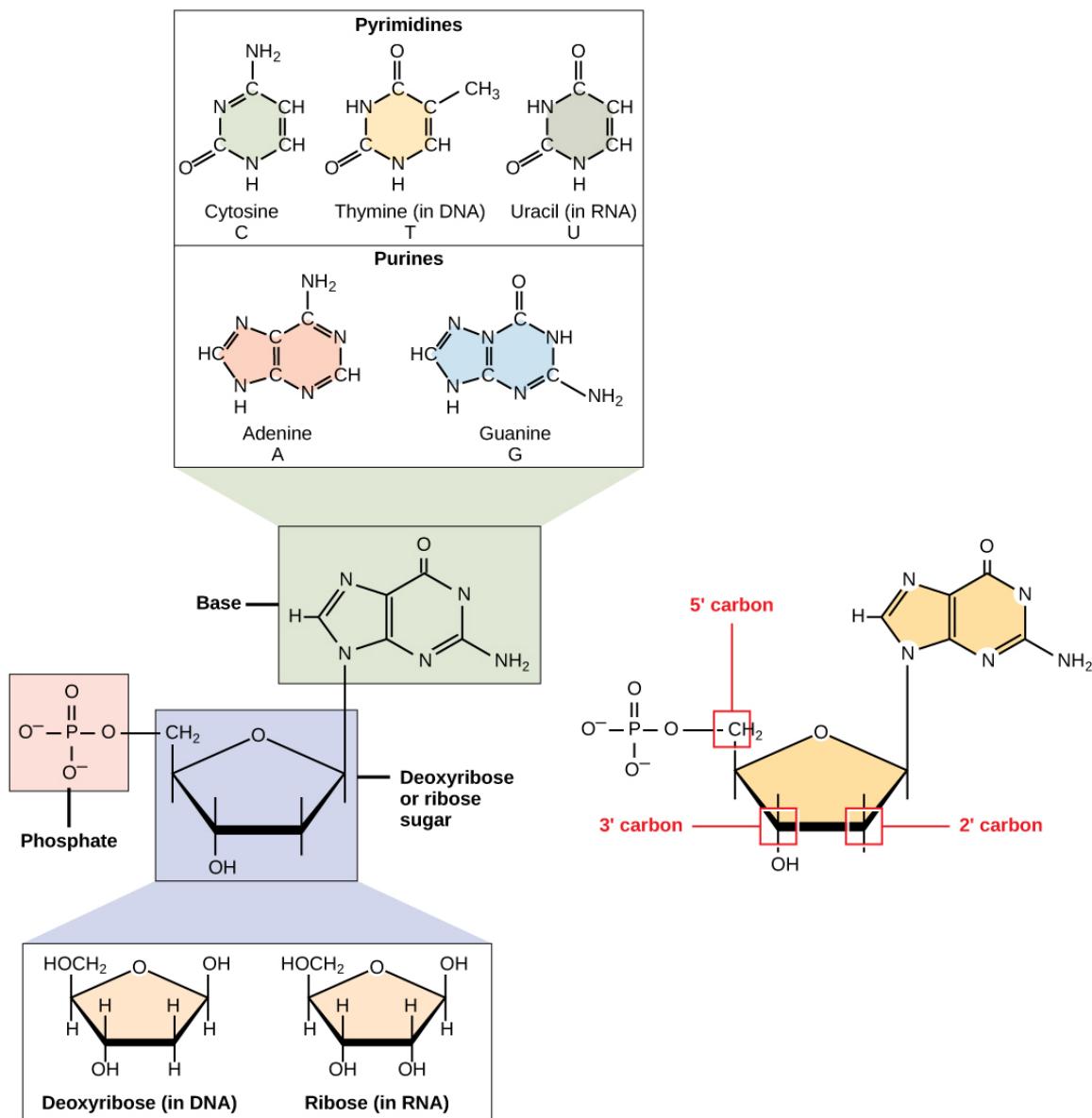
The two main types of nucleic acids are **deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)** and **ribonucleic acid (RNA)**. DNA is the genetic material found in all living organisms, ranging from single-celled bacteria to multicellular mammals. It is found in the nucleus of eukaryotes and in the organelles, chloroplasts, and mitochondria. In prokaryotes, the DNA is not enclosed in a membranous envelope.

The entire genetic content of a cell is known as its genome, and the study of genomes is genomics. In eukaryotic cells but not in prokaryotes, DNA forms a complex with histone proteins to form chromatin, the substance of eukaryotic chromosomes. A chromosome may contain tens of thousands of genes. Many genes contain the information to make protein products; other genes code for RNA products. DNA controls all of the cellular activities by turning the genes “on” or “off.”

The other type of nucleic acid, RNA, is mostly involved in protein synthesis. The DNA molecules never leave the nucleus but instead use an intermediary to communicate with the rest of the cell. This intermediary is the **messenger RNA (mRNA)**. Other types of RNA—like rRNA, tRNA, and microRNA—are involved in protein synthesis and its regulation.

DNA and RNA are made up of monomers known as **nucleotides**. The nucleotides combine with each other to form a **polynucleotide**, DNA or

RNA. Each nucleotide is made up of three components: a nitrogenous base, a pentose (five-carbon) sugar, and a phosphate group ([\[link\]](#)). Each nitrogenous base in a nucleotide is attached to a sugar molecule, which is attached to one or more phosphate groups.



A nucleotide is made up of three components: a nitrogenous base, a pentose sugar, and one or more phosphate groups. Carbon residues in the pentose are numbered 1' through 5' (the prime distinguishes these residues from those in the base, which are numbered without using a

prime notation). The base is attached to the 1' position of the ribose, and the phosphate is attached to the 5' position. When a polynucleotide is formed, the 5' phosphate of the incoming nucleotide attaches to the 3' hydroxyl group at the end of the growing chain.

Two types of pentose are found in nucleotides, deoxyribose (found in DNA) and ribose (found in RNA). Deoxyribose is similar in structure to ribose, but it has an H instead of an OH at the 2' position. Bases can be divided into two categories: purines and pyrimidines. Purines have a double ring structure, and pyrimidines have a single ring.

The nitrogenous bases, important components of nucleotides, are organic molecules and are so named because they contain carbon and nitrogen. They are bases because they contain an amino group that has the potential of binding an extra hydrogen, and thus, decreases the hydrogen ion concentration in its environment, making it more basic. Each nucleotide in DNA contains one of four possible nitrogenous bases: adenine (A), guanine (G) cytosine (C), and thymine (T).

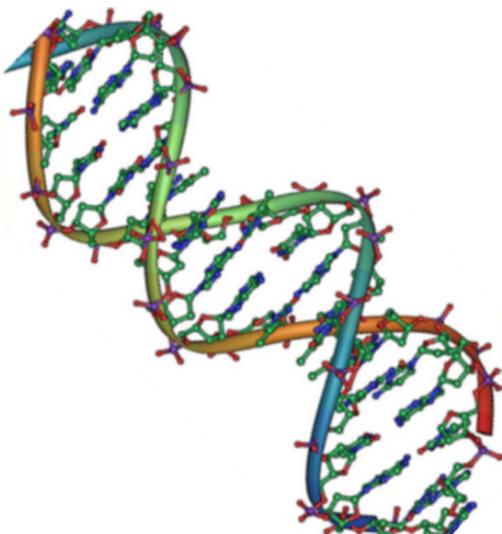
Adenine and guanine are classified as **purines**. The primary structure of a purine is two carbon-nitrogen rings. Cytosine, thymine, and uracil are classified as **pyrimidines** which have a single carbon-nitrogen ring as their primary structure ([\[link\]](#)). Each of these basic carbon-nitrogen rings has different functional groups attached to it. In molecular biology shorthand, the nitrogenous bases are simply known by their symbols A, T, G, C, and U. DNA contains A, T, G, and C whereas RNA contains A, U, G, and C.

The pentose sugar in DNA is deoxyribose, and in RNA, the sugar is ribose ([\[link\]](#)). The difference between the sugars is the presence of the hydroxyl group on the second carbon of the ribose and hydrogen on the second carbon of the deoxyribose. The carbon atoms of the sugar molecule are numbered as 1', 2', 3', 4', and 5' (1' is read as “one prime”). The phosphate residue is attached to the hydroxyl group of the 5' carbon of one sugar and the hydroxyl group of the 3' carbon of the sugar of the next nucleotide, which forms a 5'-3' **phosphodiester** linkage. The phosphodiester linkage is not formed by simple dehydration reaction like the other linkages

connecting monomers in macromolecules: its formation involves the removal of two phosphate groups. A polynucleotide may have thousands of such phosphodiester linkages.

DNA Double-Helix Structure

DNA has a double-helix structure ([\[link\]](#)). The sugar and phosphate lie on the outside of the helix, forming the backbone of the DNA. The nitrogenous bases are stacked in the interior, like the steps of a staircase, in pairs; the pairs are bound to each other by hydrogen bonds. Every base pair in the double helix is separated from the next base pair by 0.34 nm. The two strands of the helix run in opposite directions, meaning that the 5' carbon end of one strand will face the 3' carbon end of its matching strand. (This is referred to as antiparallel orientation and is important to DNA replication and in many nucleic acid interactions.)



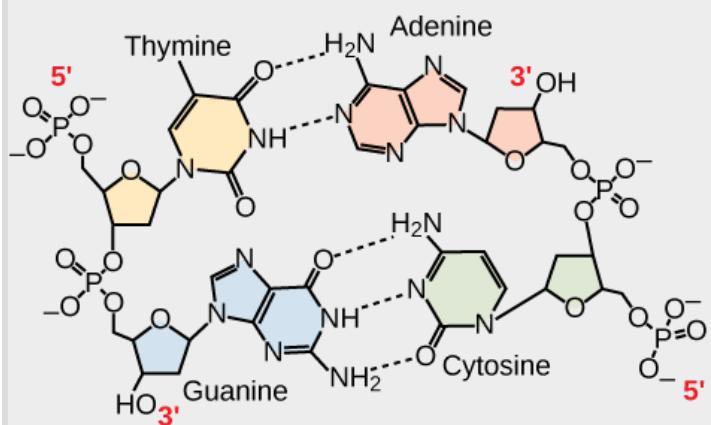
Native DNA is an antiparallel double helix. The phosphate backbone (indicated by the curvy lines) is on the outside, and the bases are on the

inside. Each base from one strand interacts via hydrogen bonding with a base from the opposing strand. (credit: Jerome Walker/Dennis Myts)

Only certain types of base pairing are allowed. For example, a certain purine can only pair with a certain pyrimidine. This means A can pair with T, and G can pair with C, as shown in [\[link\]](#). This is known as the base complementary rule. In other words, the DNA strands are complementary to each other. If the sequence of one strand is AATTGGCC, the complementary strand would have the sequence TTAACCGG. During DNA replication, each strand is copied, resulting in a daughter DNA double helix containing one parental DNA strand and a newly synthesized strand.

Note:

Art Connection



In a double stranded DNA molecule, the two strands run antiparallel to one another so that one strand runs 5' to 3' and the other 3' to 5'. The phosphate backbone is located on the outside,

and the bases are in the middle.

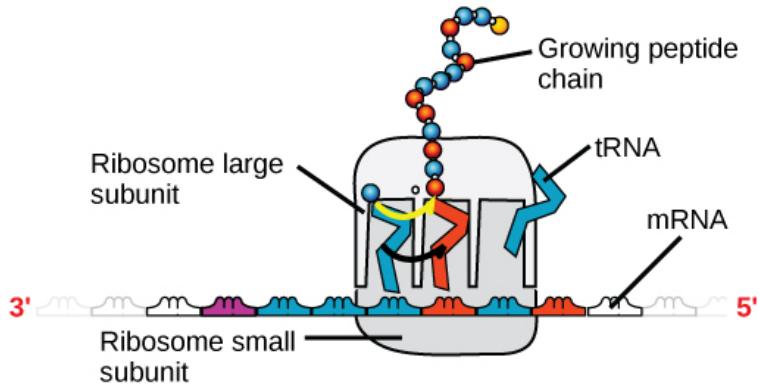
Adenine forms hydrogen bonds (or base pairs) with thymine, and guanine base pairs with cytosine.

A mutation occurs, and cytosine is replaced with adenine. What impact do you think this will have on the DNA structure?

RNA

Ribonucleic acid, or RNA, is mainly involved in the process of protein synthesis under the direction of DNA. RNA is usually single-stranded and is made of ribonucleotides that are linked by phosphodiester bonds. A ribonucleotide in the RNA chain contains ribose (the pentose sugar), one of the four nitrogenous bases (A, U, G, and C), and the phosphate group.

There are four major types of RNA: messenger RNA (mRNA), ribosomal RNA (rRNA), transfer RNA (tRNA), and microRNA (miRNA). The first, mRNA, carries the message from DNA, which controls all of the cellular activities in a cell. If a cell requires a certain protein to be synthesized, the gene for this product is turned “on” and the messenger RNA is synthesized in the nucleus. The RNA base sequence is complementary to the coding sequence of the DNA from which it has been copied. However, in RNA, the base T is absent and U is present instead. If the DNA strand has a sequence AATTGCGC, the sequence of the complementary RNA is UUAACGCG. In the cytoplasm, the mRNA interacts with ribosomes and other cellular machinery ([\[link\]](#)).



A ribosome has two parts: a large subunit and a small subunit. The mRNA sits in between the two subunits. A tRNA molecule recognizes a codon on the mRNA, binds to it by complementary base pairing, and adds the correct amino acid to the growing peptide chain.

The mRNA is read in sets of three bases known as codons. Each codon codes for a single amino acid. In this way, the mRNA is read and the protein product is made. **Ribosomal RNA (rRNA)** is a major constituent of ribosomes on which the mRNA binds. The rRNA ensures the proper alignment of the mRNA and the ribosomes; the rRNA of the ribosome also has an enzymatic activity (peptidyl transferase) and catalyzes the formation of the peptide bonds between two aligned amino acids. **Transfer RNA (tRNA)** is one of the smallest of the four types of RNA, usually 70–90 nucleotides long. It carries the correct amino acid to the site of protein synthesis. It is the base pairing between the tRNA and mRNA that allows for the correct amino acid to be inserted in the polypeptide chain. microRNAs are the smallest RNA molecules and their role involves the regulation of gene expression by interfering with the expression of certain mRNA messages. [\[link\]](#) summarizes features of DNA and RNA.

Features of DNA and RNA

	DNA	RNA
Function	Carries genetic information	Involved in protein synthesis
Location	Remains in the nucleus	Leaves the nucleus
Structure	Double helix	Usually single-stranded
Sugar	Deoxyribose	Ribose
Pyrimidines	Cytosine, thymine	Cytosine, uracil
Purines	Adenine, guanine	Adenine, guanine

Even though the RNA is single stranded, most RNA types show extensive intramolecular base pairing between complementary sequences, creating a predictable three-dimensional structure essential for their function.

As you have learned, information flow in an organism takes place from DNA to RNA to protein. DNA dictates the structure of mRNA in a process known as **transcription**, and RNA dictates the structure of protein in a process known as **translation**. This is known as the Central Dogma of Life, which holds true for all organisms; however, exceptions to the rule occur in connection with viral infections.

Note:

[Link to Learning](#)



To learn more about DNA, explore the [Howard Hughes Medical Institute BioInteractive animations](#) on the topic of DNA.

Section Summary

Nucleic acids are molecules made up of nucleotides that direct cellular activities such as cell division and protein synthesis. Each nucleotide is made up of a pentose sugar, a nitrogenous base, and a phosphate group. There are two types of nucleic acids: DNA and RNA. DNA carries the genetic blueprint of the cell and is passed on from parents to offspring (in the form of chromosomes). It has a double-helical structure with the two strands running in opposite directions, connected by hydrogen bonds, and complementary to each other. RNA is single-stranded and is made of a pentose sugar (ribose), a nitrogenous base, and a phosphate group. RNA is involved in protein synthesis and its regulation. Messenger RNA (mRNA) is copied from the DNA, is exported from the nucleus to the cytoplasm, and contains information for the construction of proteins. Ribosomal RNA (rRNA) is a part of the ribosomes at the site of protein synthesis, whereas transfer RNA (tRNA) carries the amino acid to the site of protein synthesis. microRNA regulates the use of mRNA for protein synthesis.

Art Connections

Exercise:

Problem:

[[link](#)] A mutation occurs, and cytosine is replaced with adenine. What impact do you think this will have on the DNA structure?

Solution:

[link] Adenine is larger than cytosine and will not be able to base pair properly with the guanine on the opposing strand. This will cause the DNA to bulge. DNA repair enzymes may recognize the bulge and replace the incorrect nucleotide.

Review Questions

Exercise:

Problem: A nucleotide of DNA may contain _____.

- a. ribose, uracil, and a phosphate group
- b. deoxyribose, uracil, and a phosphate group
- c. deoxyribose, thymine, and a phosphate group
- d. ribose, thymine, and a phosphate group

Solution:

C

Exercise:

Problem: The building blocks of nucleic acids are _____.

- a. sugars
- b. nitrogenous bases
- c. peptides
- d. nucleotides

Solution:

D

Free Response

Exercise:

Problem: What are the structural differences between RNA and DNA?

Solution:

DNA has a double-helix structure. The sugar and the phosphate are on the outside of the helix and the nitrogenous bases are in the interior. The monomers of DNA are nucleotides containing deoxyribose, one of the four nitrogenous bases (A, T, G and C), and a phosphate group. RNA is usually single-stranded and is made of ribonucleotides that are linked by phosphodiester linkages. A ribonucleotide contains ribose (the pentose sugar), one of the four nitrogenous bases (A, U, G, and C), and the phosphate group.

Exercise:

Problem: What are the four types of RNA and how do they function?

Solution:

The four types of RNA are messenger RNA, ribosomal RNA, transfer RNA, and microRNA. Messenger RNA carries the information from the DNA that controls all cellular activities. The mRNA binds to the ribosomes that are constructed of proteins and rRNA, and tRNA transfers the correct amino acid to the site of protein synthesis. microRNA regulates the availability of mRNA for translation.

Glossary

deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)

double-helical molecule that carries the hereditary information of the cell

messenger RNA (mRNA)

RNA that carries information from DNA to ribosomes during protein synthesis

nucleic acid

biological macromolecule that carries the genetic blueprint of a cell and carries instructions for the functioning of the cell

nucleotide

monomer of nucleic acids; contains a pentose sugar, one or more phosphate groups, and a nitrogenous base

phosphodiester

linkage covalent chemical bond that holds together the polynucleotide chains with a phosphate group linking two pentose sugars of neighboring nucleotides

polynucleotide

long chain of nucleotides

purine

type of nitrogenous base in DNA and RNA; adenine and guanine are purines

pyrimidine

type of nitrogenous base in DNA and RNA; cytosine, thymine, and uracil are pyrimidines

ribonucleic acid (RNA)

single-stranded, often internally base paired, molecule that is involved in protein synthesis

ribosomal RNA (rRNA)

RNA that ensures the proper alignment of the mRNA and the ribosomes during protein synthesis and catalyzes the formation of the peptide linkage

transcription

process through which messenger RNA forms on a template of DNA

transfer RNA (tRNA)

RNA that carries activated amino acids to the site of protein synthesis
on the ribosome

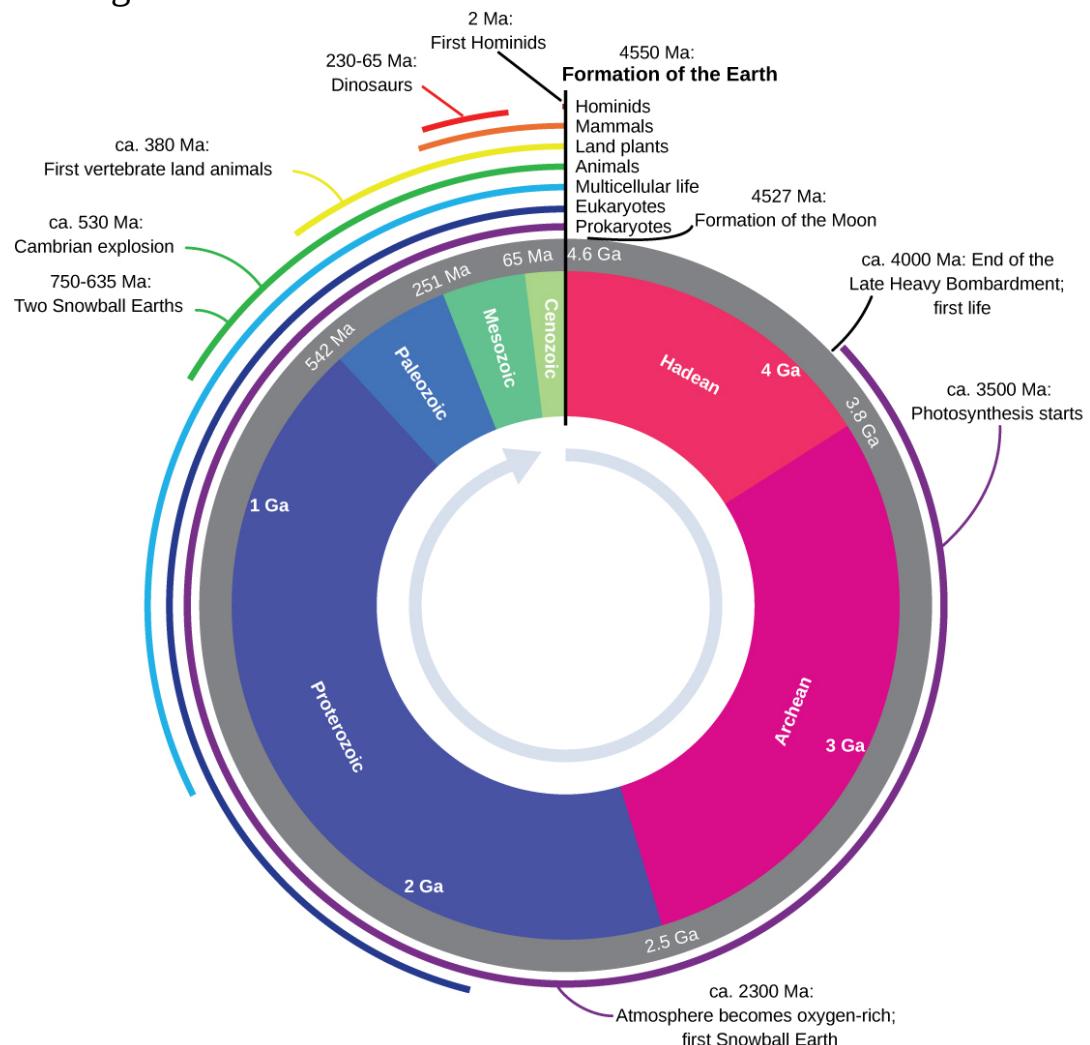
translation

process through which RNA directs the formation of protein

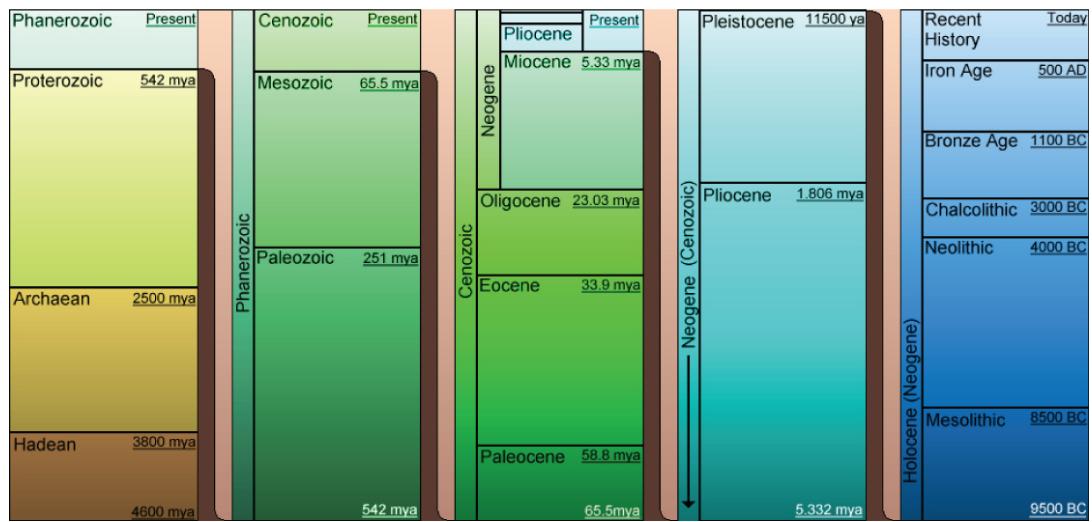
The Periodic Table of Elements

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1 H 1.01 Hydrogen	2 Be 9.01 Beryllium	3 Li 6.94 Lithium	4 B 10.81 Boron	5 C 12.11 Carbon	6 N 14.01 Nitrogen	7 O 15.99 Oxygen	8 F 18.99 Fluorine	9 Ne 20.18 Neon	10 He 4.00 Helium	11 Na 22.99 Sodium	12 Mg 24.31 Magnesium	13 Al 26.98 Aluminum	14 Si 28.09 Silicon	15 P 30.97 Phosphorus	16 S 32.07 Sulfur	17 Cl 35.45 Chlorine	18 Ar 39.95 Argon	19 K 39.09 Potassium	20 Ca 40.08 Calcium	21 Sc 44.96 Scandium	22 Ti 47.87 Titanium	23 V 50.94 Vanadium	24 Cr 51.99 Chromium	25 Mn 54.94 Manganese	26 Fe 55.85 Iron	27 Co 58.93 Cobalt	28 Ni 58.69 Nickel	29 Cu 63.55 Copper	30 Zn 65.41 Zinc	31 Ga 69.72 Gallium	32 Ge 72.64 Germanium	33 As 74.92 Arsenic	34 Se 78.96 Selenium	35 Br 79.90 Bromine	36 Kr 83.79 Krypton	37 Rb 85.47 Rubidium	38 Sr 87.62 Strontium	39 Y 88.91 Yttrium	40 Zr 91.22 Zirconium	41 Nb 92.91 Niobium	42 Mo 95.94 Molybdenum	43 Tc [98] Technetium	44 Ru 101.1 Ruthenium	45 Rh 102.9 Rhodium	46 Pd 106.4 Palladium	47 Ag 107.9 Silver	48 Cd 112.4 Cadmium	49 In 114.8 Indium	50 Sn 118.7 Tin	51 Sb 121.8 Antimony	52 Te 127.6 Tellurium	53 I 126.9 Iodine	54 Xe 131.3 Xenon	55 Cs 132.9 Cesium	56 Ba 137.3 Barium	57-71 La-Lu * **	72 Hf 178.5 Hafnium	73 Ta 180.9 Tantalum	74 W 183.8 Tungsten	75 Re 186.2 Rhenium	76 Os 190.2 Osmium	77 Ir 192.2 Iridium	78 Pt 195.1 Platinum	79 Au 196.9 Gold	80 Hg 200.6 Mercury	81 Tl 204.4 Thallium	82 Pb 207.2 Lead	83 Bi 208.9 Bismuth	84 Po [209] Polonium	85 At [210] Astatine	86 Rn [222] Radon	87 Fr [223] Francium	88 Ra [226] Radium	89-103 Ac-Lr **	104 Rf [261] Rutherfordium	105 Db [262] Dubnium	106 Sg [266] Seaborgium	107 Bh [264] Bohrium	108 Hs [277] Hassium	109 Mt [268] Meitnerium	110 Ds [269] Darmstadtium	111 Rg [272] Roentgenium	112 Cn [285] Copernicium	113 Uut [284] Ununtrium	114 Fl [289] Flerovium	115 Uup [288] Ununpentium	116 Lv [293] Livermorium	117 Uus [294] Ununseptium	118 Uuo [294] Ununoctium	119 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	120 Yb 173.1 Ytterbium	121 Tm 168.9 Thulium	122 Er 167.3 Erbium	123 Tb 158.9 Terbium	124 Dy 162.5 Dysprosium	125 Ho 164.9 Holmium	126 Erb 167.3 Erbium	127 Tm 168.9 Thulium	128 Yb 173.1 Ytterbium	129 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	130 Yb 173.1 Ytterbium	131 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	132 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	133 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	134 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	135 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	136 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	137 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	138 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	139 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	140 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	141 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	142 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	143 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	144 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	145 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	146 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	147 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	148 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	149 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	150 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	151 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	152 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	153 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	154 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	155 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	156 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	157 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	158 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	159 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	160 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	161 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	162 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	163 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	164 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	165 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	166 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	167 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	168 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	169 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	170 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	171 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	172 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	173 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	174 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	175 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	176 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	177 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	178 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	179 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	180 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	181 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	182 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	183 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	184 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	185 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	186 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	187 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	188 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	189 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	190 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	191 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	192 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	193 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	194 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	195 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	196 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	197 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	198 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	199 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	200 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	201 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	202 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	203 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	204 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	205 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	206 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	207 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	208 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	209 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	210 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	211 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	212 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	213 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	214 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	215 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	216 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	217 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	218 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	219 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	220 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	221 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	222 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	223 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	224 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	225 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	226 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	227 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	228 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	229 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	230 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	231 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	232 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	233 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	234 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	235 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	236 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	237 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	238 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	239 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	240 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	241 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	242 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	243 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	244 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	245 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	246 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	247 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	248 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	249 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	250 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	251 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	252 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	253 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	254 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	255 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	256 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	257 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	258 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	259 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	260 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	261 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	262 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	263 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	264 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	265 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	266 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	267 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	268 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	269 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	270 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	271 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	272 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	273 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	274 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	275 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	276 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	277 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	278 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	279 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	280 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	281 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	282 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	283 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	284 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	285 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	286 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	287 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	288 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	289 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	290 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	291 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	292 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	293 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	294 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	295 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	296 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	297 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	298 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	299 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	300 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	301 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	302 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	303 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	304 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	305 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	306 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	307 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	308 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	309 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	310 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	311 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	312 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	313 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	314 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	315 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	316 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	317 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	318 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	319 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	320 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	321 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	322 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	323 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	324 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	325 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	326 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	327 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	328 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	329 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	330 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	331 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	332 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	333 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	334 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	335 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	336 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	337 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	338 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	339 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	340 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	341 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	342 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	343 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	344 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	345 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	346 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	347 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	348 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	349 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	350 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	351 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	352 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	353 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	354 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	355 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	356 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	357 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	358 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	359 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	360 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	361 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	362 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	363 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	364 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	365 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	366 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	367 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	368 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	369 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	370 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	371 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	372 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	373 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	374 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	375 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	376 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	377 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	378 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	379 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	380 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	381 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	382 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	383 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	384 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	385 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	386 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	387 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	388 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	389 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	390 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	391 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	392 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	393 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	394 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	395 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	396 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	397 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	398 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	399 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	400 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	401 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	402 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	403 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	404 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	405 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	406 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	407 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	408 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	409 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	410 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	411 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	412 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	413 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	414 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	415 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	416 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	417 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	418 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	419 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	420 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	421 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	422 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	423 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	424 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	425 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	426 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	427 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	428 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	429 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	430 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	431 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	432 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	433 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	434 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	435 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	436 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	437 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	438 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	439 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	440 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	441 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	442 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	443 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	444 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	445 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	446 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	447 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	448 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	449 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	450 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	451 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	452 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	453 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	454 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	455 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	456 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	457 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	458 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	459 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	460 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	461 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	462 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	463 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	464 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	465 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	466 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	467 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	468 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	469 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	470 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	471 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	472 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	473 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	474 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	475 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	476 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	477 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	478 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	479 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	480 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	481 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	482 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	483 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	484 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	485 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	486 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	487 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	488 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	489 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	490 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	491 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	492 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	493 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	494 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	495 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	496 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	497 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	498 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	499 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	500 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	501 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	502 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	503 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	504 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	505 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	506 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	507 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	508 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	509 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	510 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	511 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	512 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	513 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	514 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	515 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	516 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	517 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	518 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	519 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	520 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	521 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	522 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	523 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	524 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	525 Lu 174.9 Lutetium	526 Lu 174.

Geological Time



Geological Time Clock



Geological Time Chart
(credit: Richard S. Murphy, Jr.)

Measurements and the Metric System

Measurements and the Metric System				
Measurement	Unit	Abbreviation	Metric Equivalent	Approximate Standard Equivalent
Length	nanometer	nm	$1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$	
	micrometer	μm	$1 \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ mm} = 0.039 \text{ inch}$
	millimeter	mm	$1 \text{ mm} = 0.001 \text{ m}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ cm} = 0.394 \text{ inch}$
	centimeter	cm	$1 \text{ cm} = 0.01 \text{ m}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ m} = 39.37 \text{ inches}$
	meter	m	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ m} = 100 \text{ cm}$ • $1 \text{ m} = 1000 \text{ mm}$ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ m} = 3.28 \text{ feet}$ • $1 \text{ m} = 1.093 \text{ yards}$ • $1 \text{ km} = 0.621 \text{ miles}$
	kilometer	km	$1 \text{ km} = 1000 \text{ m}$	
Mass	microgram	μg	$1 \mu\text{g} = 10^{-6} \text{ g}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ g} = 0.035 \text{ ounce}$
	milligram	mg	$1 \text{ mg} = 10^{-3} \text{ g}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $1 \text{ kg} = 2.205 \text{ pounds}$
	gram	g	$1 \text{ g} = 1000 \text{ mg}$	

Measurements and the Metric System				
Measurement	Unit	Abbreviation	Metric Equivalent	Approximate Standard Equivalent
Volume	kilogram	kg	$1 \text{ kg} = 1000 \text{ g}$	
	microliter	μl	$1 \mu\text{l} = 10^{-6} \text{ l}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $1 \text{ ml} = 0.034 \text{ fluid ounce}$
	milliliter	ml	$1 \text{ ml} = 10^{-3} \text{ l}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $1 \text{ l} = 1.057 \text{ quarts}$
	liter	l	$1 \text{ l} = 1000 \text{ ml}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $1 \text{ kl} = 264.172 \text{ gallons}$
Area	square centimeter	cm^2	$1 \text{ cm}^2 = 100 \text{ mm}^2$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $1 \text{ cm}^2 = 0.155 \text{ square inch}$
	square meter	m^2	$1 \text{ m}^2 = 10,000 \text{ cm}^2$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $1 \text{ m}^2 = 10.764 \text{ square feet}$
	hectare	ha	$1 \text{ ha} = 10,000 \text{ m}^2$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $1 \text{ m}^2 = 1.196 \text{ square yards}$ $1 \text{ ha} = 2.471 \text{ acres}$
Temperature	Celsius	$^\circ\text{C}$	—	$1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} = 5/9 \times (\text{ }^\circ\text{F} - 32)$